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PART ONE

GOVERNMENTAL ADMINISTRATION



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THE
ADMINISTRATION OF VILLAGE
AND CONSOLIDATED
SCHOOLS

BY

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New York

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PREFACE

PRACTICALLY everything that has been written on school administration has been written with the city system in mind. While much of this literature applies in a general way to the village school, much of it does not; and what does apply has to be translated, so to speak. This book has been written to meet the needs of principals of small schools. It is intended also as a textbook for use in normal schools and colleges where young men and women are being trained for the administration of village schools.

Two considerations have constantly been held in mind in the preparation of this text: first, the progress which is likely to occur in education in the near future, and to which the village principal must adapt himself; secondly, the technique of administering schools as they actually are. The aim, in other words, is to help the principal to be both practical and progressive.

The authors wish to express gratitude to their colleagues and professional friends, too numerous to mention here by name, who have assisted them in the preparation of these chapters.

THE AUTHORS.

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THE ADMINISTRATION OF VILLAGE
AND CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

ADMINISTRATION OF VILLAGE AND CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

CHAPTER I

THE FUNCTION OF EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

DEMOCRACY is surprisingly slow to realize its own implications. The harboring of slavery, the delay in enfranchising women, the prevalence of one-sided notions about personal liberty, the toleration of heathenish extremes of luxury and poverty, are obvious instances. But in nothing have we been tardier than in our appreciation of education.

Four stages may be enumerated in the American theory of the function of education in a democracy. Immediately after the Revolutionary War our statesmen began to urge the necessity of universal education. Their idea seems to have been that voters must be able to read in order to inform themselves on public questions. This implied, of course, free public elementary schools; but the struggle to establish such schools occupied the entire period between the Revolutionary and the Civil wars. The movement was bitterly opposed in the name of democracy itself; and in certain parts of the country it was but meagerly achieved at the close of that period.

What Training for Citizenship Includes. -- Next our statesmen and educational leaders began to see that the contents of education could be selected and arranged

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with special reference to civic aims. This conception led to the introduction of United States history into the elementary course of study, and later of civics. This occurred during the third quarter of the nineteenth century; since when increasing emphasis has been placed upon national heroes and the heroic epochs in our national career. Recently we are beginning to realize that our young citizens need a much more extended and thorough training for citizenship than we have as yet devised. We must train the child for the patriotism of peace as well as for the patriotism of war. The ultimate success and permanency of the republic will depend no more upon the willingness of its young men to fight a foreign foe than upon their attitude toward official infidelity and the encroachments of vested interests. The teaching of civics, and especially history, and the whole attitude of the school and the home, ought to teach the child respect for law. It is not a joke to catch a black bass or shoot a wild duck out of season. It is lawbreaking, and should be felt as such. Our youth must be trained to assume civic responsibility. Reforms are often lost at the polls by the indifferent, stay-at-home voter. It is well for the school to devise opportunities for giving the pupils practice in self-government. Children should be taught to take the public-welfare attitude, rather than the personal-profit attitude toward public issues and offices. It is especially important that the school give boys and girls some knowledge of the social and economic problems of the day. There are scores of important problems, such as the trusts, vagrancy, the strained relations between capital and labor, unearned increment and absentee landlordism, etc., etc., upon many of which our pupils will, in a few years, be called to vote. These questions, the tariff for instance,

we have hitherto decided by wager of political battle. But the school must prepare the public of succeeding generations to decide them in a more intelligent way. The teaching of community civics, so called, has been accorded a larger and larger place in the elementary curriculum in recent years, but nothing adequate has as yet been achieved. Indeed nothing adequate can be achieved in the elementary school; the child is too immature to understand these economic problems. Secondary education is necessary to this end. It is high time we saw that this kind of teaching is one of the chief functions of the high school. It is in unconscious but providential anticipation of this function that the high school has made such phenomenal growth in the past fifty years. But the course of study needs to be radically reconstructed and a very much larger place given to elementary sociology and economics. The village principal who hastens the day when his own school will perform this task is a benefactor of his country. But furthermore, secondary education must be made universal, so that all citizens can receive this training. The consolidated school movement is significant chiefly because it promises to put high school facilities at the disposal of the rural population. It remains to be seen what sort of movement will render high school education accessible to the masses in our industrial centers; but it must be done.

Americanization. — The entrance of the United States into the Great War brought to consciousness a civic task of great importance to which the schools had not given sufficient attention in the past, namely the Americanization of our foreign-born population. The acute need for this was made evident by the pro-German propaganda and espionage that

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were rife, and by the menacing industrial agitation carried on by the I. W. W.'s, most of whom are foreigners. The Bureau of Education gave publicity to the following significant facts, showing the need for Americanization. One hundred races and nationalities live in the United States; 33,000,000 are of foreign origin; 13,000,000 are foreign born; 5,000,000 are non-English-speaking, of whom 2,000,000 are illiterate; 3,000,000 aliens of military age are unnaturalized; 1,115,392 foreign-born white males of voting age from the Central Powers are unnaturalized. Foreign languages were used for elementary instruction in many private schools, English being a side issue. In some communities parochial schools have crowded out public schools; 19 American district public schools in Nebraska were compelled to abandon the field to German Lutheran parochial schools. Elementary instruction was given in German in 200 to 300 German Lutheran parochial schools in 50 counties of Nebraska, 357 German teachers were employed; the use of English was prohibited in some of these schools.

We have always gone on the assumption that America is the melting pot, and that all we have to do is to dump the various nationalities into it and light the fire of patriotism. But real American citizens are not made that way; we must get close to alien adults, imbue them with American ideals, and teach them how to live and how to participate in the social life of their adopted country.

Two special sorts of education may be included under the head of Americanization: (1) special patriotic instruction in the public schools, and (2) special educational service for adults and minors not enrolled in the regular schools. So long as the war lasted the best kind of patriotic education

in the public schools was to secure as nearly as possible a one hundred per cent participation on the part of the pupils in Junior Red Cross work, war gardening, the purchase of thrift stamps, and similar patriotic activities. This was often supplemented by learning patriotic songs, by giving patriotic programs both at school and before the public, and by pushing the "speak English" slogans. Now that the war is over it is to be hoped that appropriate activities of a similar type will be devised to inculcate the patriotism of peace.

The Bureau of Education has worked out an elaborate program for encouraging, coördinating, and guiding patriotic education for foreign-born adults and minors over school age. It is expected that such education will be carried out chiefly through lectures and public addresses, periodicals, especially those printed in foreign languages, and evening schools. Special legislation is needed for the encouragement of evening schools. Village and township principals should find out how many persons there are in their districts who need the service of evening schools (afternoon schools are better for women), and then take steps to supply the need. The Bureau of Education will promptly furnish abundant instructions as to what to do and how to do it. The Council of National Defense Bulletin No. 86 is especially useful. The sooner the principal gets this information the better, as the preliminary publicity campaign is important, and the Bureau makes some valuable suggestions in that connection. Most boards will be glad to permit the use of the schoolhouse for evening classes, and many will see fit to finance the enterprise in whole or in part. In many villages volunteer teaching will have to be relied upon, to some extent at least, but it should be selected with care.

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However important this emergency program of Americanization may be as a war and reconstruction measure, our enthusiasm in carrying it out must not blind us to the need of a vastly more comprehensive program as a permanent policy of Americanization. Permanently loyal American citizens are made not merely by flaunting flags, singing patriotic songs, and worshiping heroes, but by guaranteeing full participation in a socially just democracy. Americanization as a permanent educational program must gradually come to signify a system of education that will, in the first place, produce a socially just democracy, and, in the second place, guarantee to all, whether native or foreign born, full participation in the benefits thereof. But more of this presently.

The Social Value of Vocational Education. — The present emphasis upon industrial education seems to mark a third stage in the evolution of democratic education. Aside from the industrial necessity for industrial training the movement has a democratic significance. It is felt that every individual has a right to preparation for the type of work he is destined to make his living by; that poverty should not be allowed to push anybody into the world's work without such training; and that the humble workers have as much right to their training as the professional classes have to theirs. Further, it is felt to be a self protective policy for democracy to insure the industrial efficiency of every citizen. And finally, industrial education, if administered with vision and foresight, can be utilized to secure a more equitable distribution of wealth, a more sympathetic relation between social classes, and to counteract the tendency toward caste stratification. This last is not as clearly recognized as it ought to be.

The principal should clearly recognize, therefore, the edu-

cational value of participating in the world's work. Opportunity should be given the child for this sort of experience. The curriculum and the spirit of the school should be frankly associated with the industrial life of the community. The school must also recognize its responsibility for preparing the rising generation to play their part in industry. On every hand there is a demand for industrial training in the schools, and it cannot come too rapidly. The boys and girls of to-day must take their places in the technical, scientific industry of to-morrow; and the village school must frankly adopt the policy of preparing them for it. In preparing for vocational life the school should open the eyes of the children to the art and the science involved in the daily task of every worker. This would mean the difference between mere drudgery and inspiring work and is one of the most important items in the program of ameliorating labor conditions.

Self-realization and Social Efficiency. — We are approaching a fourth stage in the evolution of democratic education, and it may be worth while to set forth its ideals somewhat at length.

Democracy (in common with Christianity) asserts the dignity and worth of each individual human life. Jesus taught that all men are sons of the universal Heavenly Father. Every person has a right to be happy, declared Rousseau. Every individual has a right to be treated as an end and not as a means, asserted Kant. All men are endowed by their Creator with the unalienable right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Democracy undertakes to guarantee each and every individual an opportunity to live as complete and satisfying a life as his native powers will permit.

Democracy has never yet placed the emphasis upon in-

dividual duty and responsibility that Christianity does, but as democracy matures that emphasis is increasing. We are coming to see ever more clearly that the permanent success of democracy, like life insurance or any other coöperative enterprise, depends upon how much the beneficiaries put into it. Democracy implies that every individual must be brought to the fullest physical, mental, and moral usefulness that his native equipment implies.

The happiness that democracy undertakes to guarantee, and the usefulness that it demands, both depend upon the education of body, mind, and heart. Nor will any meager, stunted, makeshift education answer those purposes. It must be an education that insures the individual full participation in all the rich cultural inheritance of the race. Skills, techniques, sciences, arts, recreations, institutions, customs, literature, codes, ideals, philosophies, have all been slowly built up by the race to satisfy the needs of human life. Democracy means that each and every one is to share in these to the full measure of his innate capacities. He is entitled to his choice of the skills and techniques necessary to production; he is entitled to the use of all the good things that civilization has produced. And what any one is entitled to enjoy all are entitled to share in alike. If music is a source of refined pleasure, the miner who has toiled all day in the sooty depths of the earth is as much entitled to it as the soft-handed sons and daughters of ease. If Jean Valjean is worth knowing, the farmer's hired hand has as much claim upon his acquaintance as has the minister or the lawyer. If a knowledge of science releases from superstition and disease, whom shall we choose to deprive of the knowledge? If training for a wholesome family life, and for participation in

religious, political, æsthetic, and other social activities is desirable for the "better classes," it is as desirable also for the "masses." Thus all classes will become better classes. An equitable distribution of learning, culture, and opportunity is the most fundamental requisite to the success and permanence of democracy.

Enriching the Life of the Community. — It is interesting to imagine how life in the average village and rural community might be enriched by a more liberal participation in the good things of the social heritage. The tragic barrenness of rural life that Hamlin Garland complains of is due largely to ignorance. At least most of it might be cured by the right kind of education. Give every inhabitant of the village and township an adequate knowledge of science, and living conditions would become sanitary and hygienic, the quack doctor and the patent medicine vender would lose their trade, religious superstitions and bigotries would fade away, epidemics would disappear, and farming would be revolutionized. The knowledge of and love for literature and music might furnish a wholesome happiness and a moral protection which people in rural communities sadly lack as a rule. The latent musical, dramatic, and oratorical talents that lie dormant in the average community are an undeveloped resource that if utilized might be made to furnish cheap and wholesome recreation, for the lack of which degrading amusements corrupt and demoralize the people. A public-spirited musician, with qualities of leadership, could revolutionize the culture, morals, and social life of the community.

The artistic barrenness of the average little village is tragic indeed. Ancestral tablets and livid chromos take the place of pictures; a cheap, squealing phonograph or a

made-sir-to-sell piano rattle ragtime; the village presents a hideous landscape appearance with its unpainted, tumble-down sheds, its weedy fence rows, and its piles of compost and old machinery. And yet the artistic resources latent in every such village are almost beyond belief. If they were fed on race treasures they would replace hideousness with loveliness. The traditions of Europe and the past may justify a peasant life for a peasant people; but democracy demands a rural life that will prove "permanently satisfying to representative American citizens"; and this can be realized only as education puts rural people into possession of all the rich heritage of the race.

And what democracy is bound to furnish to farmers and the people of farm villages it is bound to furnish also to all kinds and classes of people. It is a fundamental sociological principle that society is held together by common interests. The more social order depends upon voluntary loyalty instead of force, the more necessary this common interest; and the more varied and complex the civilization, the larger and more varied the culture that must be made a common possession. It is such sociological considerations as these that make evident the necessity for a universal liberal education. This is the program of Americanization that will prove adequate in the long run.

The Schools of To-morrow. All this implies a school system for to-morrow that we little dream of to-day. It means at least a high school education for everybody (except defectives), and an advanced education for all who are capable of profiting themselves and society by it. Universal secondary education must become the American slogan. The compulsory attendance age must be correspondingly raised.

The Function of Education in a Democracy

We must quit talking about children that have to drop out of school early ; instead we must find means of keeping them in school. This will mean more than free textbooks ; it may mean free food and clothing. And it will mean a curriculum adapted to the psychic needs of adolescent life and to the social needs of twentieth century civilization. It will also mean teachers adequately trained and adequately paid for these new responsibilities. All of this will require funds such as we have never before supposed it possible to invest in education ; but the funds are available. We have but to install a tax system that will endow universal opportunity instead of special privilege and hereditary luxury. Such a school system may seem Utopian, but there are several evidences that it will come : the ideals of democracy demand it ; the rate of educational progress of the last two generations would, if continued, bring it in a generation or two ; England has recently, and in the midst of a great war, taken a long stride in this direction ; and the times are revolutionary. As this book goes to press the Joint Commission's education bill is before Congress. If that bill or a similar measure is presently enacted into law it will mark a new era in American education.

But the function of education is not merely to prepare the citizen for the performance of his civic duties, not only to assure his happiness and usefulness by putting into his hands what civilization has already produced ; its further function is to bring into existence a better civilization, a juster democracy to-morrow than we enjoy to-day. Education is the steering gear of civilization, especially in a democracy. And that is destined to be an immeasurable responsibility during the generation or two just ahead ; for the times are

indeed revolutionary. The reconstruction period upon which we are just entering will see greater social changes than have ever occurred in a like span of time since recorded history began. Some of us now alive may live to see a new setting of the social stage as different from ours as ours is different from that of naked savages. And whether the stage setting is shifted quietly and without friction, or with noise and blood and fire, will depend largely on the leadership of the schoolmaster. If he conceives vividly the ideals and implications of democracy, and understands clearly the sociological laws that govern social organization and reorganization, all is likely to be well. But too few educators have the sociological insight to anticipate this strategic responsibility.

Such being the function of education in a democracy, it is evident that the village principal who does his work efficiently and with vision may well rejoice in the consciousness of a vital service rendered to his country and to God.

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CHAPTER II

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL AND THE GOVERNMENT

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND THE SCHOOLS

IN America sovereignty, so far as education is concerned, resides with the states. When the federal constitution was adopted certain powers were delegated to the federal government and certain others were prohibited to the state. Education was not among these. In the very nature of the case education had been in charge of the colonial governments, and it accordingly remained in the hands of the state governments. The federal government has no administrative authority therein. Its only function is such volunteer assistance as it has from time to time seen fit to render. This voluntary patronage has been principally of two sorts: first, material aid to the states; secondly, the advisory leadership of the Bureau of Education at Washington.

Material Aid. — The most important material aid has been in the form of land grants to the states for the aid of common schools. From the very beginning of our national history one section in every township of the newly created states was set aside for this purpose; and, since 1850, two sections. In addition to these two sections, there have been various minor land grants, including allotments to special institutions. In all about 81,000,000 acres have been given to the various states for educational purposes, an area equal to Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. In some cases this land was unwisely

administered, and the proceeds partly squandered; but the younger states have profited by these early mistakes and have learned to conserve their lands to better advantage, so that now they provide vast sums every year to be used by the several states in aid of their respective school systems. For obvious reasons Maine, West Virginia, Texas, and the original thirteen states have received no land grants. The reader will be interested to look up the facts in his own state.

Next in historical sequence to the land grants for common schools was the Morrell Act of 1862. This law provided a liberal appropriation of land "to the endowment, support, and maintenance of at least one college" in each state, "where the leading objects should be . . . to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." Subsequent acts have added to the original land grant liberal subsidies in money for the support of these schools. As a result each state has its agricultural college from which the village school derives assistance in various ways, especially in connection with the teaching of agriculture. Under the Smith-Lever Act of 1914 the assistance of the federal government in the teaching of agriculture and domestic science has been greatly extended. The village principal may now secure assistance from the extension workers of the agricultural college and from the county agricultural agent, all of whom are supported jointly by the federal and state governments under the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act.

The Smith Hughes Act, which became a law in February, 1917, is an epoch-making measure as far as concerns federal aid to industrial education. The measure is designed to stimulate not only the teaching of agriculture, as have various other federal grants since 1862, but home economics and in-

dustrial subjects as well — and this is the epoch-making feature of it. To secure the grants the state legislatures must formally accept the provisions of the act (which most of them have done), and meet the federal appropriations dollar for dollar. The grant for the teaching of agriculture is apportioned among the states in proportion to their rural population; that for “trade, home economics, and industrial subjects” on the basis of their urban population. An equal appropriation is made for each of these purposes, the amount in each case being \$500,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1918, and increasing annually until \$3,000,000 is reached for 1926 and thereafter. In addition a much smaller sum is appropriated for training teachers of these subjects. The “controlling purpose” of this act is “to fit for useful employment.” The instruction is designed for persons over fourteen years of age, but is not to be of college grade. The Smith-Hughes Act ought to mark the beginning of a policy on the part of our state and federal governments that will ultimately provide for adequate industrial education.

On October 10, 1918, a new education bill was introduced in the Senate by Hoke Smith of Georgia. The bill had been prepared by a Joint Commission of the National Education Association and the Federal Bureau of Education. The two features of this bill are (1) to elevate the Bureau of Education into a Department with a Secretary of cabinet rank, and (2) to appropriate \$100,000,000 of federal money annually to the states for the aid of education, each federal dollar to be met by a new dollar of state money. This money would be used for various purposes such as Americanization, to banish illiteracy, to equalize educational opportunities in the several states, for hygienic education, and for teacher

training. If this bill should become law, it would put education on an entirely different footing. Something of this sort is necessary and would seem inevitable in the not distant future.

The Bureau of Education. — The Bureau of Education was established in 1867. The functions of the Bureau are as follows: First, it is a clearing house of information in regard to educational matters, publishing reports and bulletins on all conceivable phases of education. Secondly, it is a clearing house of the opinions of educational experts. The Bureau carries on a voluminous correspondence, conducts conventions, and by various other means gathers together the opinions of leading educators, publishes them, and furnishes them to the educational public. Thirdly, the Bureau advises legislatures, boards of education, teachers, and others; conducts surveys and reports on the same, and in this way furnishes guidance to those engaged in educational administration. Fourthly, it promotes various progressive movements in almost every phase of education. And fifthly, it has taken up the task of working out standards of measurement for the appraisal of educational activities. All this affects the village school both directly and indirectly, indirectly in so far as new movements are promoted by the Bureau and guided by the information it furnishes. Educational leaders then feel the Bureau's influence, and pass it on to the schools whose policy they direct. But the village school may profit directly much more than it has ordinarily done by the service of the Bureau of Education. While the Bureau does not publish enough of its bulletins and reports to supply the library or the principal of each village school in the country regularly with all its publications, still most

enterprising principals who ask for the bulletins or reports of the Bureau will not be disappointed; and the more requests that come in, the sooner the Bureau will be permitted to print its publications in more adequate numbers. The principal can secure information on almost any educational subject by writing the Bureau at Washington, and he should take pains to keep himself familiar with its publications. In fact he should ask to have his name put on the mailing list. The Bureau prints monthly a bibliography of current educational literature, which is especially useful to all progressive educators.

The Philanthropic Foundations. — There seems to be no more logical place than this to mention certain voluntary institutions of national significance. The great philanthropic foundations — the General Educational Board, the Carnegie Foundation, the Russell Sage Foundation, and the Rockefeller Foundation — grant aid and conduct researches that affect indirectly the activities and welfare of the village school. Also the Proceedings of the National Education Association are great repositories of professional information and should be found in the school's library. No school man can be out of touch with these institutions and their publications and hope to keep up with the times.

THE STATE GOVERNMENT AND THE SCHOOLS

State Aid. — The educational activities of the state governments are also of two sorts: financial aid and administrative control. As for the first, the state administers the funds accruing from federal grants and also provides school funds on its own account. Most states have some special fund set aside for educational purposes. Appropriations are also

made from time to time by the legislature for the support, not only of the state's higher institutions of learning, but also for the common schools. The states differ so much in these matters, however, that detailed descriptions cannot be attempted. The reader is referred to the school laws of his state, a copy of which can usually be secured from the county superintendent. The principal should, of course, familiarize himself with the school laws of his own state.

State Control. — Since the state — that is, the people of the whole state — is sovereign in matters of education, it is the state law that prescribes regulations and restrictions for the conduct of local schools. This is the most important aspect of the state's educational work. By state law rules are enacted relative to school funds, both state and local, as to how they are to be levied, collected, disbursed, and administered. The state law specifies the various school officers, both state and local, and determines how they are to be selected and what their duties are to be. The state prescribes rules for the administration of schools, specifying how districts are to be organized, how teachers are to be certificated and what their duties are, how attendance is to be regulated, what the course of study must include, and how textbooks are to be selected and furnished. The state sets standards with respect to the course of study, quality of teaching, construction of buildings and other material equipment, and sanitation. The state also provides for the special care of defectives and delinquents.

For the administration and enforcement of these regulations the state maintains a corps of school officers, usually a state board of education and a state superintendent of education, with certain subordinates, deputies, and special super-

visors. With these officers the village principal has more or less official business; and the state's educational policy, which they are supposed to determine, determines, in part at least, the principal's policy for his own school.

The County and the Schools. — The county's relation to the village schools is in process of revolution. A century ago it was zero. The districts were practically autonomous, and county superintendency was as yet unheard of. In New England the county government even now bears little relation to the public schools, administration having been developed on the township basis. County superintendency grew up during the second and third quarters of the nineteenth century. Revolutionary changes with respect to the counties' relations to schools are expected in the near future and will be described in the next chapter.

Financially the county as a rule has nothing to do for the schools except to receive money voted by the districts or furnished by the state and disburse it to the schools according to the provisions of the state law.

The business of the county superintendent is principally to keep records and to visit and inspect schools. This he usually does with authority so meager as to render his efficiency very much less than might be desired. The superintendent, being chosen for his office as a rule by political methods, is seldom able to take a truly professional attitude toward his work. The numerous exceptions to be found in various parts of the country are cases in which the personality of the incumbent overcomes the obstacles inherent in the nature of the office itself. In connection with his visitation and inspection of schools the county superintendent advises teachers and consults with school officers. He is held in

some degree responsible for the enforcement of school law, but usually with seriously limited authority. In some states he examines and certifies teachers, and in most states conducts institutes. His educational leadership depends almost entirely upon the force of his own personality.

The School District. — The schools are still so largely subject to the control of local authorities that their quality depends mostly upon the intelligence and the progressive attitude of the local community and its school officers. Of recent years there has been a marked growth in the authority and influence of the principal, so that he exerts an ever increasing influence on the character of the school. The city government of incorporated villages seldom has anything to do with the schools. Instead they are under the control of school districts, which in most northern states are subdivisions of the township. The school district has an interesting history. In colonial times the unit of school administration in New England was the town (that is, the township); but as population grew, settlements multiplied until each township contained several nuclei of population, centering around the churches. Gradually this resulted in the subdivision of a township into districts, the districts usually being coextensive with the parishes. Little by little, through the lapse of two centuries, the control of the school was transferred from the township to these districts, until at last the districts became practically autonomous. The disadvantages of this arrangement, which will be discussed in the next chapter, were so great that a reaction set in about three quarters of a century ago, with the result that everywhere the districts are now supervised from above. In some states there has been a partial return to the township system.

In North Dakota, for instance, the township is the school district, except in the five counties settled earliest. In most of the northern states the district system has been retained. The districts are no longer independent, however, of county supervision; and state regulation of local schools has been vastly increased. Nevertheless it is usual to provide by law for the district organization of larger towns that renders them independent of the county superintendent.

The schools of the district are controlled and administered by a board of directors, or trustees, in whom is vested considerable authority by the state law. They levy the school tax upon the district, and, when authorized by the people, bond the district and pay for school improvements. They employ teachers and have general control of the schools, subject to the restrictions imposed upon them by the laws of the state. The principal's most obvious and constant relation with the government is through the school board. They stand between him and the sovereign people, representing the latter. His successful adjustment of himself to his board is one of the most important items in the technique of his profession, and will receive discussion in the proper place.

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CHAPTER III

THE REORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION

Implications of the Ideals of Democracy. — The underlying axioms of democracy imply that everybody share, and share liberally, in the benefits of education. If education helps people to live more richly, nobody may, in a consistent democracy, be deprived of its privileges. If art, literature, and music are good for the professional man and the well-to-do, by what principle of democracy shall we expect the miner and the ditch digger to do without them? Everybody has a right to self-realization, and if liberal education is necessary thereto, a government like ours must undertake to furnish it.

Moreover, industry demands many kinds of skill and knowledge that cannot be learned in the course of the day's work, and that the poor cannot afford to acquire at their own expense before beginning their life work. Unless the schools furnish this training, society will be burdened by a mass of unskilled incompetents and industry handicapped by a lack of skilled laborers. Also, the problems that the voters must settle at the polls are so numerous and so difficult that they cannot be expected to solve them correctly without a thorough, well-guided study of them. For these reasons democracy must as a matter of self-preservation give all its people considerable education.

Education in a democracy must be universal. Nor can it be meager. The minimum essentials are so great that a

mere elementary education is no longer sufficient. Universal secondary education, including both cultural and vocational subjects, is necessary to the success of democracy. The sooner we adopt this slogan the better; its realization must not be long delayed.

Two administrative principles logically follow from the foregoing axioms: first, the poor must not be left to provide themselves with such education as they can; secondly, the indifferent must not be left to provide themselves with such education as they will.

The Wealth of the Nation at the Disposal of the Schools. — The first of these principles may be restated thus: school funds must be levied in proportion to the means of the taxpayer. This principle was worked out in the evolution of American schools nearly a hundred years ago. It was supposed at the close of colonial times that education was largely the responsibility of the family. Children were educated in proportion to the means of their parents. But by the time our republic was three quarters of a century old it became obvious that no individual's education might be neglected just because his parents were poor. Under the system of public education developed in the northern states between 1825 and 1865 the principle was adopted that a citizen must support the schools in proportion to his means, and not in proportion to the number of children sent to them. This was stubbornly resisted for a time as an infringement of the rights of the individual taxpayer; but democracy gradually prevailed, till now it is taken as a matter of course.

It remains, however, to extend the application of this principle to localities. Hitherto it has been limited, for the most part, to families. But we are coming to see that a

township or village cannot be permitted to neglect the education of its children because it is poverty-stricken. The neighboring communities must, if they are wealthier, assist it. If a county has a larger school population and a lower tax valuation than the other counties of the state, it may rightly expect help from outside. The same principle applies to states also. For these reasons we need a change in our methods of financing education; at present local units are left too much to their own resources, much as families were a hundred years ago.

The Need for Professional Experts. — The second principle stated above implies that the educational expert should have a good deal more to say about the conduct of our schools than heretofore. The quality of schooling furnished must not be left merely to the choice of ignorant patrons. Schools should be more thoroughly supervised by experts, and should be controlled by laws drafted by experts. This raises the problem of how to secure really competent educators for county, state, and federal offices, and how to define their responsibilities. This principle also implies obviously the enforcement of attendance laws.

Popular Control of Schools. — But there is a third principle, which this one just mentioned seems to contradict. It is indeed older and perhaps more fundamental than either of these two, and must never be overlooked. It is the democratic principle that the people must always have a large share in both the support and the control of their own local schools. This is a fundamental doctrine on which self-government is based. It is necessary for two reasons. In the first place, it is necessary in order to secure the interest of the people themselves. No really democratic education can be

maintained without it. If the people do not participate in the support of the schools they will presently become unwilling to patronize them. It is necessary, in the second place, to prevent a professional bureaucracy. This would mean sooner or later an educational system out of touch with the people and therefore remote from their real needs.

Increased Federal and State Aid. — The changes in the administrative organization of education necessary in order better to realize these three principles will now be described.

First, the federal government. The influence of the federal government in the educational affairs of this republic ought to be radically extended. The Bureau of Education should be erected into a regular Department, and the Commissioner of Education given a portfolio in the President's Cabinet. The Commissioner and his staff should be the most constructive educational statesmen the country can produce. The Department's function should be to outline an educational policy for the nation that would be adequate to the needs of democracy in a complex civilization and a period of rapid and revolutionary social reconstruction. The financial aid of the federal government should be vastly extended, sufficiently, indeed, to insure the compliance of the states with the policy outlined at Washington. The federal government's resources are practically limitless, especially when one considers the possibilities of the taxation of monopolistic corporations — not to dream about the returns from nationalized railroads or other vast industries. And when one takes into consideration how much richer some states are than others in proportion to their school population one sees how necessary national subsidizing of education is if educational opportunity is to be equitably distributed the

country over. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 undoubtedly marks the beginning of this new era in the relation of the federal government to our educational system. The Joint Commission's bill would, if enacted into law, mark an even longer stride.

And what has just been said about federal aid may also be said about state aid, for the financial resources of the various localities within a state are grotesquely out of proportion to the cost of maintaining good schools. The principle of state aid is only in its infancy, and should receive vast extension. The states also have undeveloped resources of taxation scarcely dreamed of as yet. The fact is, our whole tax system needs a thoroughgoing reconstruction, and this is of the highest importance to the cause of education. If our states would tax corporations, inheritance, and the increments in land and other values, as European nations have already learned to do, they could build up funds for the aid of schools that would approach adequacy. Such should be distributed on the basis of two purposes. First, the distribution should be in proportion to the school population in every locality, the object being to furnish just as good schools in densely populated communities where the tax valuation is low as in more sparsely settled localities where the tax valuation is high. Secondly, the funds should serve as a sort of bonus or reward for educational progress. For example, consolidated schools in rural communities should receive a more liberal state aid as an inducement to consolidation.

Reorganization of the State Department. — The administration of schools on the part of the state should be so organized as to give an opportunity for experts to devise and carry out a positive policy. At the same time there must

be maintained a nice balance of administrative responsibility between the local community and the state. The local community should be compelled and financially aided to maintain a minimum standard of education. Beyond this it should be encouraged and indeed stimulated to develop its own initiative. There should be "uniformity in essentials and liberty in non-essentials." The state should organize its administrative machinery in order to secure these results.

To this end the state superintendency should be taken out of politics entirely. The practice now in vogue in most of the states of electing a state superintendent by popular vote and for a comparatively short term of office renders the office undesirable as a rule to men of real professional attainments, and the tenure of office so insecure as to interfere seriously with the development of a constructive policy. It would be far better if the state superintendent were selected by a state board of education, as the president of the state university is selected by the board of trustees or regents. This would make possible the selection of an expert purely on the basis of his professional merits. There is a difference of opinion as to whether the state board of education should be elected by the people or appointed by the governor. The method of appointment seems to have the preference. If such a board were to select the state superintendent on his merits and for an indefinite term of service at an adequate salary, the office would attract good men and make possible the development of a constructive policy.

Standardization. — The central problem in the state administration of education is undoubtedly the problem of the standardization of schools. The schools should be held up, as has been said, to a minimum standard with respect to the

material equipment, the curriculum, and the quantity and quality of teaching. So far as material equipment is concerned, standards may safely be prescribed either by law or by ruling of the educational department. The withholding of state aid would probably prove an effective incentive for the maintenance of such standards, especially when state aid shall have been developed to the proportion just outlined. So far as the curriculum is concerned, that may well be outlined by the state board of education, but it should certainly be flexible — mandatory only with respect to essentials, suggestive with respect to everything else. How to induce the local schools to carry out the course of study, and how to secure sufficient inspection of a high quality, is another problem. The state examination, however, should be condemned. It interferes with local initiative, which should be encouraged. It has a tendency to stifle the more spiritual kind of teaching, and to substitute instead a mechanical cramming for the examination. This was sufficiently demonstrated by the "payment by results" scheme, tried out in England half a century ago. Further, the scheme is found in practice to interfere with the individualization of teaching. Each pupil has his own peculiar needs, and these cannot be cared for by the examiners at the state capital. No one knows how many young lives have been ruined by the inelasticity of the state examination system. It is but a miserable substitute for good teachers and adequate supervision. There is only one way to standardize teaching, and that is to standardize the teacher. And the only way to standardize the teacher is, first, to require of her adequate training, and, secondly, to give her adequate supervision. The only practical way to find out whether a teacher is living up to the course of study

and doing her work well is for the principal or superintendent to find it out by personal inspection. No absent treatment is a substitute for this.

The County Unit. — The reorganization of the local machinery for administration of schools is one of the most urgent problems in education. The present arrangement is entirely inadequate and unsatisfactory, both from the standpoint of financing and of supervising the schools. The area is often too small. This can be illustrated by supposing the case of a small mining village where the school population is excessive and the people poor. The valuation of taxable property in such a village will be too small for the proper support of the schools. Lying all about this village there may be a rich agricultural area, the land having a market value of two or three hundred dollars per acre. The number of children of school age in such a rural township might be very small, so that the tax rate necessary for the support of the schools would be very low indeed. There are large numbers of just such villages as this in the state of Illinois, and the school facilities are notoriously unequal. Such a situation is desperately in need of a remedy. In the second place, the supervision of schools in the rural districts and small villages is egregiously inadequate. As has already been stated, the usual political method of selecting a county superintendent makes it exceedingly difficult for the office to secure and retain a person of real educational efficiency; and, even so, the amount of supervision expected of one superintendent is impossible. The unprofessional character of the office is, however, the chief obstacle to its efficiency.

Educational experts now universally agree that the county should be the unit of local organization for the administration

of schools. At the head of the county school system there should be a county board of education corresponding to the board of education in our larger cities. The members of this board should be elected by the people; but they should have no other political responsibility than the control of the schools. In other words, the county board of education should consist of five or seven, certainly not more than nine, representative citizens of the county, chosen at large by the people; but their selection should be divorced entirely from party politics. This county board should have a function analogous to that of the city board. The county superintendent should be chosen by this board on the basis of his personal and professional merits only, and the board should be at liberty to go anywhere into the markets of the country to find its man. By such an arrangement as this the county superintendency would be put on a professional basis. The tenure of office should be made secure, and the incumbent given an opportunity to work out an adequate educational policy for the county.

This would permit a system of supervision of the village and rural schools of the county approaching in excellence that already worked out in the cities. In fact, our city schools have succeeded in solving the problem of administration to a fairly creditable degree, while the rural schools lag far behind in this respect. This reorganization of the county is the outstanding lesson that the country may learn from the city so far as schools are concerned. It is sound, moreover, from the standpoint of political theory, for all modern experience goes to show that the people may be trusted to select representatives for legislative and general administrative functions, but not technical experts. This

county unit plan would also help to solve the problem of school support by giving the larger area of taxation so much needed. It would also solve the problem of enforcing the state laws relative to attendance. At present the superintendent's reward for enforcing them vigorously and conscientiously is liable to be the loss of his office at the next election. An appointed superintendent, if given adequate authority, could enforce them without fear.

It may be objected that this scheme is in vogue in a few northern states and has not always worked out well. Indiana may be cited as an example. There the hoped-for elimination of politics has not resulted; but the reason is obvious. The county board is composed of the political leaders of each township, instead of being composed of men elected on a non-partisan ballot, and intrusted with educational functions only.

The Local Advisory Board. — So much for the support and administration of schools. It remains to say a few words further about popular participation in their support and management. This, for the reason stated above, is absolutely necessary to the success of the schools of a democracy. Under the arrangement already outlined, this would be provided for in part by local taxes, voted upon themselves by the people of the county. As long as the people are supporting the schools they are bound to feel an interest in them; but a unit of local taxation smaller than the county is no more necessary in the country than is a ward unit of taxation in the city, especially in modern days of easy communication. Popular participation is further provided for by the popular election of the school board. Nor is it necessary in this case to have a ward unit in the city or a

township unit in the country. The county unit does not take the matter out of the hands of the people.

An additional provision for popular participation may be suggested, namely, something in the nature of a local advisory board, preferably as unofficial as possible in its nature. This device has been used successfully in the administration of public charity and correction. It has become quite customary for the states to provide for an advisory board of supervision for penitentiaries and insane asylums. The membership of these boards is appointive, the incumbents serve without pay, and their function is purely advisory. The same arrangement in the case of county or township almshouses has actually been carried out successfully. The analogy is suggestive for the public school, and it leads us to infer that an advisory council for each local school, authorized by law, and perhaps selected by a parent-teachers' association, might serve the purpose. We need in America to learn that public opinion is sometimes just as effective when organized unofficially as officially.

The reorganization of education outlined above, especially the county reorganization, will probably come in most of the states within a generation or less. Meantime it is necessary for the village principal to coöperate intelligently, tactfully, and patiently with the machinery now in existence. But he should, nevertheless, be an intelligent advocate of reorganization.

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PART TWO

THE PRINCIPAL'S PERSONAL-OFFICIAL
RELATIONS

CHAPTER IV

RELATION WITH THE BOARD

The Knack of Personal Relations. — The village principal sustains numerous relations which are official or semi-official, but his success therein depends very largely upon the personal relation which he succeeds in establishing and maintaining. His most important relations of this sort are with his board, with his teachers, with the pupils, and with parents and patrons. There are some specific rules and tricks of the trade which will be given for the principal's guidance in these relations, but success here is in the last analysis much more a matter of personal than of official adjustment, and boils down finally to the principal's knack of getting along with folks. If he has this ability he will succeed.

The knack of getting along with people is to some extent a gift, a matter of temperament, which one inherits. Nevertheless it can be cultivated; and persistent effort to acquire the knack will, in the long run, yield large returns. And there is no more important subject to which the young principal may turn than to self-culture along these lines. For his assistance, therefore, some suggestions will be offered.

Tact and common sense are the fundamental requisites.

Tact. — Tact we shall not undertake to define, but rather shall offer some advice as to how to develop it. In the first place, learn to know folks; especially learn to discern, or perhaps one should say divine, their interests and their

motives. To this end one should mix and mingle with all kinds of persons and under all kinds of circumstances. The man who knows only teachers and professional men scarcely knows even them. Let the principal therefore make it a rule never to lose an opportunity of conversing with persons whom he may chance to meet. The conceited, exclusive snob shuts many kinds of folks out of his experience, and so shrinks his own personality. The more persons one knows the more of a person he himself becomes. Further, one should make it a point to study the folks he knows from various angles. In the schoolroom Johnnie may seem mischievous and inapt, and if the teacher never sees him on the ball ground he may never know that this same Johnnie is a born leader. Miss Smith in the classroom may seem phlegmatic and lacking in initiative, but in the home of a neighbor at a time of bereavement she may surprise you by a wholly unexpected mastery of the situation. Mr. Brown may seem ignorant, pessimistic, and visionless in the board meeting. But go hunting with him or discover the thwarted ambition of his youth, and you see a different man entirely. And so it goes. Without special pains we see but one side of a person's features. Further, cultivate a keenness for the other modes of expression besides the verbal. The posture of the body, the expression of the countenance, the gleam of the eye, the tone and modulation of the voice, the gesture of the hand, — all these things speak to one who has ears to hear far more plainly and truly than does the spoken word. To take people as they say is, very often, to take them wrongly; but to know the thought and feeling, to appreciate a personality, you must read the subtler signs; and this is a language far more worth studying than any of the ancient or modern classics.

Tact, in the second place, may be developed by cultivating an attitude of feeling. One must like folks if he is to treat them tactfully, for otherwise he cannot get their point of view. He must have a genuine sympathy with the interests and motives of those with whom he has to do. As an art tact is nothing more than the intelligent practice of the Golden Rule. Persons differ by nature with respect to this attitude of the heart; nevertheless it can be cultivated. It must be genuine, however. No counterfeit will serve. It can be cultivated by knowing people well, as has been suggested, for the instinct of sympathy is inherent in all of us, and knowledge increases it. We cannot sympathize with persons whom we do not know; conversely, the better we know people the better we can sympathize with them. Another way to cultivate genuine sympathy is persistently to repress the various manifestations of selfishness, for if the tactless person will inquire carefully into the reasons for his lack of tact he will be sure to find at the center of his soul a large core of selfishness.

In two words, then, tact will come to the person who learns to know folks and to like them.

Common Sense. — The second requisite to success in getting along with folks is common sense, or practical judgment.

This gift also is to some extent temperamental and inherited; and sometimes, as in the case of Abraham Lincoln, amounts to unique and consummate genius. Nevertheless it may be cultivated. Common sense is in the first place the ability to see the whole of a situation, not part of it merely. Let the young principal ask himself when he confronts a practical problem: What am I overlooking? What am I

leaving out of account? The reader will recall instances of mistaken judgment due to the fact that there were several elements in the problem, one or more of which was ignored. If one makes it a practice to search for the missing item, he will often find it and save himself a blunder. This will increase his confidence in himself and his reputation for good sense.

Another reason why persons size up a situation wrongly is because they thrust themselves into the problem, so to speak. They are biased by their own feelings and interests. They let their desires warp their judgment. One should ask himself: Am I thinking or only wishing? That will often clarify the situation.

If one can form the habit of taking a little time to deliberate and to ask himself these two questions, he will develop an increasingly sound judgment.

The Management of the Board. — The management of his board is frankly set down by the wisest writers as one of the problems of the superintendent of schools. It sounds contradictory enough, to be sure, since the board is elected by the sovereign people for the express purpose of controlling the schools, and the authority to do so is vested in them by the state law. Why the management of his board is one of the principal's most important tasks will appear in the course of the chapter.

The first element in this problem is to secure the election of proper persons, and the wise principal, especially if he remains in one place for a long period of time, can and should exercise some influence in this matter; but there is no point at which a more judicious use of common sense is necessary than in the principal's efforts to shape his own board. Ob-

viously he must never put himself in the position of having opposed a successful candidate for the office. On the other hand there are times when he should openly oppose the reelection of a bad member, bad in the sense of being demonstrably immoral or dishonest. But there are ways of suggesting at proper times and places the type of man likely to make a good board member, and even of influencing the appearance of a candidate in the field. Of these measures the skillful principal gradually becomes master; but to tell how he does it, much less to tell somebody else how to do it, would be beyond him.

There are several outstanding characteristics of the good board member. In the first place he should be a person of large administrative experience. Business or professional people who have succeeded in a large way have usually had such experience; but it will usually not be found in persons who have managed little affairs, in subordinates, in failures, or in persons retired from business. They are accustomed to receive orders rather than to give them, are unused to the handling of large sums of money, or have developed traits of personality that are objectionable. It may be seriously questioned, however, whether it is entirely democratic to have the schools of all the people represented only by the heaviest taxpayers of the community. The retired farmer is proverbially a burden to the school board of the small rural village. The usefulness of women will depend largely upon their breadth of vision. There is probably no larger opportunity for usefulness for the mature woman of intelligence, education, sympathy, and broad outlook upon life. They are often, however, too much accustomed to considering the details of handling children, and so little accustomed

to administering large business affairs that it is difficult for them to adopt the administrative point of view.

A second qualification for a good school board member is sincerity, in the sense of honesty, and a genuine desire to serve the community. The welfare of the school is the only consideration that should figure in the mind of the board member. Men who are likely to use the office for political purposes or for other selfish ends should be avoided. If the director is dishonest, the principal should oppose him publicly as soon as he can secure positive evidence of his guilt. In the third place, the more education the school board member has the better. It often happens that a town which contains numerous college graduates, who possess the other requisite qualifications, elects some hail-fellow-well-met whose education has never carried him through the third grade. Obviously, this is a misfortune to the community. The fourth qualification is liberal acquaintance with human nature and affairs. This implies a reasonable degree of maturity.

The Limitations of the Board's Functions. -- One of the most troublesome difficulties with which the village principal has to contend is the failure of his board members to understand where their duties and responsibilities leave off and his begin. This naturally results in a tendency on their part to interfere with matters that they should leave strictly to the principal himself. It is not easy to draw with exactness the line of demarcation. In general the duties of the board are legislative while those of the principal are executive. The general policy of the school should be outlined by the principal but authorized by the board. The principal should then be intrusted with the carrying out of that policy and

the execution of its details. Expenditures are usually suggested by the principal, but must always be authorized by the board. The division of responsibility can be illustrated by the analogy of a hospital. The board of trustees would determine the budget, employ the administrative officer, and specify some general rules such as the kind of cases to be handled and the fees to be charged, but it would be absurd for them to meddle with the professional work of the doctors and nurses. It is equally absurd, or should be, for the directors of a school to interfere in the professional duties of the teachers, such as the selection of textbooks, materials, or apparatus, or the determining of the course of study, methods of instruction, or the discipline.

Theisen specifies the following as, in the order given, the most important duties of the school board :

1. To select the superintendent and then support him.
2. To pass upon the annual budget.
3. To debate and pass upon the recommendations of the superintendent for additional capital outlay.
4. To advise with the chief executive, affording a group judgment, on his recommendations for extensions or readjustments of the scope of educational activities.
5. To appoint teachers and other employees upon recommendation and nomination by the superintendent.
6. To determine salaries, after consultation with the superintendent.
7. To require and consider reports of business transacted or pending, and the financial status of the system.
8. To require and discuss reports of the superintendent concerning progress of schools — in terms of achievements of pupils and teachers.

There are two reasons why school boards should confine themselves for the most part to such duties as these. The first is that by meddling with technical matters, such as instruction, discipline and selection of textbooks or other equipment, they rob themselves and their school of the expert service they have paid a high price for; as if one should employ a physician and then meddle with his treatment of the patient. The second reason is that they rob themselves of their own time necessary to an adequate consideration of the problems for which they really are responsible.

This division of responsibility is based upon the necessity for both popular control and expert teaching. The people, through their board, must control the general policy of the school, but the details of the educational work are, or should be, expert. With respect to these the board is supposed to have neither knowledge nor skill. The board should make sure that they have employed an educational expert, and then keep hands off for the good of the school. However, for the average village school and school board, this condition inclusivity is far in the future. And perhaps the chief reason why this is so is that, as a matter of fact, the principal and the teachers have usually been young and inexperienced, and really as far from experts as the board members themselves. The fundamental cure for this defect is, of course, salary. It may be well to suggest, therefore, that the young principal should be more keen about making himself a genuine expert than about demanding the rights of an expert. Meantime, however, it is proper that he should, in a tactful way, educate his board as to the limitations of their own responsibility, and lead them to see that they can serve the schools best by limiting themselves to such activities

as really belong to them. The experience of the authors would indicate that the earlier a professionally ambitious young principal asserts himself the earlier his board will accord to him a professional status. In the education of their boards many principals have found it profitable to put into the hands of each of their board members, at their own expense, some good educational periodical, such as *The American School Board Journal*. It is also well to induce one or more of them to attend the State Association.

The Board Meeting. — The practice of the boards with respect to their meetings varies widely in different villages. In the larger places it is customary for the board to hold regular meetings at least once a month, following a regular order of business and keeping exact records. At these meetings the superintendent is expected to be present as a matter both of right and of duty. At the other extreme are the boards of the small rural places that never have any regular meetings, and, in some places, scarcely any meetings at all. The work of the board is done in an informal way, for personal convenience, between the members or between the principal and the members, perhaps one at a time, as they meet on the street corner or at the post office. Sometimes a single member of the board takes matters into his own hands, and authorizes or instructs the principal, or even makes contracts. It may be noted in passing that there is really no legal validity back of business transacted in this way, but only when business is concluded by a vote of the board in formal session. Of course when business is done in this haphazard way no records at all are kept. Practice varies between these two extremes. It is the duty of the principal to take his board wherever he finds it, and bring it

up, through tact and common sense, as far as he can toward the upper level. This duty deserves emphasis. He should secure meetings of the board with as much regularity and parliamentary form as are practicable under the circumstances. He should be present at the meetings of the board. But this will sometimes require management. One village principal, for instance, was given distinctly to understand when employed that his predecessor had been discharged because he insisted upon being present at all the board meetings; and the new man was explicitly notified that the board meetings were not his affairs and he was to stay away. This man, however, was patient, tactful, and modest, and before the lapse of many months the board invited him to appear at one of the meetings for some special reason; and before the end of his principalship in that school he was a regular and welcome attendant at the board meetings.

The Principal's Policy. — There is but one reason why the principal should lead his board, and that is that he as an educational expert may formulate and cause to be carried out a policy for the school that will be both wise and progressive. Someone has described this matter of policy building as the laying of an educational track into the future. It is here that the principal's professional insight and foresight ought to be of the most value to the community which he serves; and the young man who can muster the patience to work out and carry out a wise and farsighted policy, extending through a term of years, will certainly be rewarded by the ample satisfaction of his altruistic instinct, for he will thereby render the community a large and permanent service. There is probably no surer way, moreover, of laying the foundation for a professional career. In the matter of in-

ducing his board to put the policy into execution the principal must remember that Rome was not built in a day. Infinite patience will be required. Many temporary defeats and backsets will be experienced. Progress will be made a step at a time, and occasionally in the attempt to mount two or three steps higher, one or two slips downward may intervene. But always, through success or failure, the principal is educating his board and his public; and when one gain has been made the next will thereby be made more easily, until ultimately the lapse of years will reveal net gains that are gratifying and valuable. Meantime the principal's own goal has been moved on a little farther ahead than it was before. Thus, step by step, the school advances.

The young principal can make no greater mistake than to fail to appreciate the good qualities of his board members. There is scarcely any school board but has on it at least one or two men of sound judgment, good business experience, and progressive aims. The young principal should show respect and appreciation for such men. He may be better schooled and cleverer than they; but such men may have richer experience and riper judgment. The wise principal knows how to tie to them, to learn administrative wisdom from them, and, above all, to use them to influence the other members of the board. This is probably the most valuable advice that can be given the young principal so far as the leadership of his board is concerned.

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CHAPTER V

THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS TEACHERS

IN the principal's official-personal relation with his teachers two chief aims are involved: first, the selection of teachers, and, secondly, the improvement of teachers in the service.

The Selection of Teachers.—The principal should be intrusted with the selection of all teachers and held responsible for their success or failure. Nominations to the board should be made by the principal, for the reason that the choice of teachers is expert service, and because the principal is dependent upon his teachers for the development of his policies. However, the legal authority for the employment of teachers is with the board.

In order to assure the selection of good teachers it is necessary, in the first place, that the board shall offer such conditions as will attract good teachers. To this end the principal should first of all induce his board to offer the highest salaries practicable. He should see to it that favoritism, politics, and whimsical considerations are eliminated from the choice of teachers, and that security in office and promotion in pay are proportionate to efficiency. To the degree in which he can build up for the school a reputation for these attractions he will find it easy to secure good teachers. In the second place, he should have clearly in his mind the qualifications necessary for the position he wishes to fill, as, for example, sex, professional training, or social gifts. Then it is more

satisfactory to seek the teacher than to take the teachers who seek the school. This will not always be practicable and will sometimes be limited to requisitions upon normal schools or agencies; but the ideal method is for the principal, by visitation and inquiry among his professional associates, to find the teachers he wants. Testimonials should be taken with a grain of salt, especially if they are furnished by the applicant or secured from references whom the applicant designates. In such cases it is pretty safe to assume that the testimonial has been written by a friend who wishes to assist the applicant in securing a position. This means that the principal must read between the lines. What the letter omits to say about the applicant is usually more significant than what it does say. For instance, the applicant is inexperienced, flippant, and inattentive to business. The testimonial asserts that she is attractive in appearance, vivacious in deportment, brilliant in intellect, and a fair student. The principal who fails to see the holes in such a recommendation has nobody to blame but himself. It is better for the principal to solicit letters from mutual acquaintances of himself and the applicant, but who have not been nominated by the candidate.

The personality of the teacher, as well as various other matters, can be determined only by an interview; and the principal should have little difficulty in showing his board that the superintendents of larger towns near by are always sent by their board to interview prospective teachers. Personal interviews, however, have their snares and pitfalls. Even the most experienced administrators overestimate ridiculously their own ability to size up a candidate during a few minutes' interview under artificial circumstances. An

attractive young woman is apt to turn the head of any mere man, even if he is a young principal just out of college. The teacher should be seen at work, under normal conditions, by a man who is master of the technique of the teacher's art. She should be appraised from the standpoint of the principles of that technique, and the symptoms of her mastery of them closely observed. How do the lines move? How does she ask questions? Does the moral atmosphere of her room indicate a cheerful respect for her authority? Are the desks free from rubbish and tidily arranged? Such inquiries as these should supplement the employer's estimate of the candidate's personality and his inquiries about her character and success.

Preparatory to each annual election of teachers it will be necessary to decide which members of the teaching force are to be nominated for reelection. With this in view it is well for the principal to devise some systematic method of appraising teachers. In harmony with the measurement mode now in vogue it would be desirable to have a score card for estimating teachers' efficiency. The pedagogical literature of the day contains many suggestions as to how to make and use such a card. Of these it will perhaps be sufficient to refer the reader to the Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 3, 1911, pp. 139 ff. See also Figure 19, Chapter XV. If a score card is used, whether of the principal's own devising or one taken from some other source, it will be well to use it as a check upon, and not as a substitute for, his common-sense estimate of the candidate. Permit teachers to see their own score cards from time to time, and, if their records indicate that they are likely to fail of reelection, induce them to resign in advance.

Getting rid of unsatisfactory teachers is sometimes a difficult and delicate matter. The principal should always be prepared to specify definitely and abundantly the shortcomings which necessitate discharging the teacher, and the more completely he has the confidence of the board and the more fully he has informed them with respect to the affairs of the school, the more satisfactorily such experiences will terminate for him. In this unpleasant task there is always call for the exercise of humane consideration. If a young woman is a failure in the schoolroom it would be the magnanimous thing to help her find herself in some other work. The fact that she has proved a misfit in one school may not preclude her succeeding elsewhere. She may have learned her lesson. While a principal should never compromise himself, of course, in the recommendations which he proffers to other superintendents and school boards, nevertheless there are innumerable ways of disposing of unsatisfactory teachers that will not blast their opportunities to try again elsewhere.

Improvement of Teachers in the Service. — For the improvement of teachers in the service numerous devices have been in use. The teachers' institute was devised in the days when untrained teachers were the rule. In lieu of a thorough course of training a few days or weeks of cramming on pedagogical platitudes, together with a hasty review of the common branches, was supposed to be better than nothing. The best writers now condemn the institute as utterly inadequate and out of date. The up-to-date substitute is the summer school. In some states teachers are virtually compelled to attend summer schools, at least occasionally, in order to secure the renewal of their certificates. The practice should

become general. Principals and boards may well exert a little gentle pressure, or even offer some material incentive, to secure the attendance of their teachers at the summer sessions of normal schools, colleges, or universities.

Every person who takes his profession seriously must do systematic professional reading. Very few have the self-control to keep up such study without some incentive, such as working toward a degree, registering for a correspondence course, keeping ahead of a class, or meeting with a group to work on some regular schedule. Teachers' reading circles lend themselves to the last named incentive, and the principal who has tact and leadership to interest his subordinates in keeping up the reading is to be congratulated.

Visiting other schools is an approved means of stimulating teachers to better work, and it is quite customary to give teachers time for this purpose. Obviously, however, this may readily degenerate into a mere holiday, unless precautions are observed. A master of the technique of teaching can suggest to his teachers what to look for in the work of other teachers; and a critical discussion upon return will then prove useful. By letting his teachers visit each other a principal can, if he is tactful, utilize the excellences of any member of his corps as a model for all the rest. One of the authors once had an intermediate teacher who was almost a failure. Just as he was at his wits' end to know what to do with her, the state inspector visited the school. He was delighted with what he saw in the primary room, but had scarcely stepped into the intermediate room when he whispered: "What's the matter here?" After watching the teacher for a few minutes he remarked: "Have her visit Miss Blank in the other room." The hint of that wise old

school man has never been forgotten, and has often been followed to great advantage.

An important opportunity for the exercise of professional leadership is in the teachers' meetings. This should be an occasion not only for discussing the concrete problems of the school but also a time for inspiration and instruction. With this end in view it is important that necessary business be conducted promptly and expeditiously. Begin on time and adjourn on time. The principal should preside, but he should encourage free discussion, and should be very careful not to give the impression that frank expression of opinion is dangerous. A professional program will often prove profitable. It may be based on some course of reading or study more or less extended, or involve reviews of new books or current educational magazines. Teachers may prepare papers on various subjects related to their work and calculated to dignify it by deeper insight. If the principal is sufficiently superior in training and efficiency he might undertake some overt instruction of a technical sort. Sometimes the faculty meeting may well give place to a meeting of teachers for strictly social purposes. It is a fact of profound importance that people work together better if they have occasionally played together. The principal's home should occasionally be the place of such gatherings.

Supervision. — The most vital means of improving teachers in the service is expert supervision. This work is usually neglected or bungled in the ordinary village school. And as a rule it may be scamped without the board or the public finding it out. That is because our schools are as yet in such an unprofessional stage of their development. But there is no more certain or necessary way for a young prin-

principal to assure his professional future than to make himself master of the art of supervision. This is not the place for instruction in that art, for the simple reason that it involves a thorough knowledge of the entire technique of pedagogy. The first thing, therefore, for the principal to do, unless he has had a good normal training, is to get the proper books and begin a thorough study of them. And even if he is a normal school graduate he will make a mistake if he neglects grinding and persistent review. Principals who are college graduates and who have had some work in pedagogy will discover in most cases that their training was largely abstract. While history and principles of education, psychology, and sociology are indispensable as a liberal foundation for the profession, they are by no means a substitute for the concrete technique of elementary and secondary teaching. The latter must be mastered, and the sooner the novice undertakes the task the better.¹

The principal should avoid the snare of considering himself primarily a high school teacher. However important that work is, he is primarily principal, and his own as well as the school's interests demand that he put supervision first. To this end he should, whenever practicable, put some elementary teaching on his daily schedule. He should aim to become ultimately an expert teacher in any department, as efficient with a first-grade phonic drill or sixth-grade history lesson as with a high school class in economics or physics. Not otherwise can he become a thoroughly competent supervisor. He will then be in a position to demonstrate to a weak teacher by taking the class himself for a day or two. There is really

¹The reader is referred to Chapter XVII for a brief discussion of the technique of teaching, and a list of necessary books for further study.

no good reason except tradition why the principal of the whole system should teach in the high school. If we were only accustomed to it the strongest teacher, anywhere in the system, could administer and supervise the whole school. The war will probably result in more and more women being employed as principals. In that case an experienced woman who is doing good work in the primary, intermediate, or grammar grades, and who shows administrative ability, could be intrusted with the principalship without transferring her from the grade where she is teaching.

An absolutely essential secret of success in supervision is the existence of satisfactory personal relations between the principal and his teachers. Without this he can do nothing. There are two chief reasons for this. In the first place the principal's official superiority in small village schools is usually precarious, and his actual personal superiority is sometimes meager indeed. Obviously, therefore, he can, where official superiority is dubious, lead only by sheer force of efficiency, personality, and good will. In the second place, successful teaching depends upon the state of mind. Discouragement and doubt make failure probable, but a feeling of self-confidence and mastery presages success. Not only so, but true teaching involves stimulating pupils to mental initiative and self-reliance; and this the teacher cannot do without a feeling of freedom, self-direction, and consciousness of personal achievement. Unless the principal can secure this state of mind he can never be a leader. But it can be done! Bagley advises the young teacher that one of the best ways of escape from the worries incident to the teaching profession is to have some older and more experienced fellow teacher to whom one can go for advice and consolation. If

the principal can establish such a relation as this between himself and his inexperienced subordinates he may feel that his professional selfhood is satisfactorily in the making. For this is prerequisite. Let him, therefore, establish such relations as early as possible, but move forward with caution until they are achieved.

Various Administrative Relations. — It is important that the teacher be strengthened in her position before her own room by the attitude of her superior. It goes without saying that the teacher should never be criticized in the presence of the children. It may seem a small matter for the principal to enter one of the grade rooms and proceed to speak to the children or to call out a pupil without first addressing the teacher and asking her permission, but proper courtesy in such small matters as this will profoundly affect the children's attitude toward the teacher and augment her authority in her own domain.

As far as possible the principal should protect his teachers from interference on the part of parents. It is well to develop the impression in their minds that they must deal with him. One of the most difficult positions in which the principal can find himself is that of having to defend a teacher from the attacks, sometimes wholly unwarranted, of the patrons; but this he must not shirk. Mere gallantry, as well as professional ethics, will also dictate that he relieve his teachers of the more difficult and disagreeable features of discipline. On the other hand, the principal has a right to expect and demand the personal loyalty of his teachers. If he is not worthy of it he should be dismissed. The teacher who does not give it should be dismissed.

It is also a settled principle of school administration that

teachers should communicate with the board through the principal. If conditions become intolerable with a teacher (or a group of teachers), she may take matters into her own hands and appeal directly to the board; but that implies an extreme lack of confidence, and should lead to the resignation either of the principal or of the teacher. The principal on his part, however, must beware of creating the impression with his teachers that they communicate through him with his wastebasket rather than with his board.

In the appraisal of the teacher's work for purposes of supervision the initial problem is to discover precisely where her weak points are. The principal should not undertake this analysis in any offhand, general-impression, guesswork fashion. He should instead tabulate or outline the fundamentals of technique and keep a record of the teacher's strong and weak points, based upon his observations. At first he will do well to have such outline or table on paper. Eventually it will become second nature to him. Meantime he can use it to supervise himself as well as his teachers.

It would be extreme to declare that the principal should never criticize, but such an extreme statement might serve to emphasize the fact that criticism should be the exception. It is sometimes necessary, and is especially useful if it can be given early in the career of the inexperienced teacher, in order to save her from habituating something in manner or voice that will prove a handicap. Some teachers of long experience are even more in need of it, but, of course, after the synapses are hardened such a surgical operation becomes exceedingly delicate and the shock severe. Let the principal exercise extreme caution, therefore, in administering criticism. Let him be absolutely certain that he is right therein, and

that the case is sufficiently important to render it necessary. Little faults are sometimes left behind in the general progress of a growing teacher. If criticism is offered let it be constructive, definite, and usually positive, so that the teacher will not fail to understand precisely what is meant. Above all let him be sympathetic.

Instructions to teachers should be definite, specific, and thoroughly understood. Generalities, such as, mend your ways, get better results, teach grammar better, are usually worse than useless. Specify definitely what is the precise change expected; illustrate, explain, and demonstrate; and persist until the improvement is effected. If the personal relation has been kindly the teacher herself should find satisfaction in the improvement. But be careful not to swamp her with too many suggestions at once; give each suggestion time to become habituated.

Professional Inspiration. — The most essential of all the supervisory functions is that of inspiration, and this cannot be accomplished except by radiation. Unless the principal himself is an efficient, enthusiastic teacher, a teacher of teachers, with high professional ideals, keen educational insight, and a mastery of professional technique, he cannot hope to succeed.

If the dominant educational theory of the time is correct, the most precious jewel in the personality of the teacher is initiative. Dewey contends that if democracy is to solve the problems arising out of the complexity of the modern social, industrial, and political order it can be only by cultivating in the rising generation what he calls the "creative attitude" or "problem-solving disposition." How can this be expected from teachers who are nothing more than obedient

imitators and gradgrinds? Or how can we expect from such teachers a progressive, ever improving school? No principal, however well trained or brilliant, can expect to think of all the good things worth thinking of. The teacher who has something to suggest, or some variation to initiate, is worth cultivating. This is a policy that is now carefully cultivated in many of the most progressive manufacturing concerns. Have a mortal dread of turning such a teacher down. Unless her novel venture is subversive of well-established principles let her try it out. Give her a fair chance to demonstrate whether she is a reformer or a mere dreamer of vagaries. Of course the latter cannot long be tolerated. It is the suppression of time-proven faults in teaching, not the suppression of brains, that is wanted. Democracy is in the air. Supervisors are employed not to discipline their teachers but to help them acquire the technique approved by generations of experience. The compromise that a principal arrives at between the horns of this dilemma will depend upon his temperament, his common sense, and his own professional enlightenment.

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CHAPTER VI

PUPILS, PARENTS, AND PUBLIC

Attention to Individual Needs. — The principal should give especial attention to the individual needs of his pupils. The wise principal will hasten to establish as soon as possible pleasant personal relations between himself and all his pupils. It often happens that a pupil's first personal contact with the principal is of the unpleasant sort incident to discipline. Such an experience naturally prejudices the pupil against the principal and interferes with the educative process. On the other hand, if the boy knows the principal through some form of social contact, the disciplinary session is smoothed out in advance. This is the point of view from which the principal should approach every youngster in town. To this end it is necessary that he should know his pupils thoroughly. He cannot deal successfully with them in a mass; he must deal with them as individuals. In order to establish such relations with his pupils he should make a special effort to be companionable; he should make every effort to secure their confidence, never losing an opportunity for conversation and informal private interviews. It is well for him to keep closely in touch with their sports, sometimes participating in them. This attitude will, perhaps, be less difficult for a man of mature years, who is himself the father of adolescent sons and daughters. The young man must try to remember how it feels to be in his teens and how a father would feel towards boys and

girls who are in their teens. Such advice as this is somewhat trite; however, it is valuable.

Psychological and Medical Clinics. — In addition to all this the principal should have such knowledge of individuals as can be obtained only by a medical examination or a psychological clinic. While this is not as a rule possible in a small school, it nevertheless suggests the ideal toward which the principal should aim. He should try to avail himself of some form of medical inspection, particularly in some cases, and he should make himself as rapidly as possible a psychologist, capable of conducting a clinic. In illustration of the importance of this scientific aid in knowing individuals, many instances might be cited. In one case a boy was found to be practically incorrigible and was judged to be a candidate for the house of correction. However, a dentist discovered that his condition was due to the deformities of his teeth, which he was able to correct. Another boy was found upon psychological examination to be of good mind, despite the superficial indications to the contrary. His bad disposition was found upon investigation to be due to prenatal influences. His parents were aware of the facts in the case; but they did not realize that the facts were the cause of the trouble. The teacher was able to secure a more intelligent sympathy on the part of the parents which helped to solve the problem. The principal should secure a thorough knowledge of his pupil's heredity and environment, both mental and physical. Often a visit to a boy's home would change the principal's point of view entirely. Perhaps the majority of the pupils under a principal's care may need no special attention, though one girl who had been in a large high school for four years is reported to have said that she felt like doing something

desperate just for the sake of having a personal conversation with the principal. But there are some individuals who are very much in need of personal attention, especially those who come from unfavorable home surroundings, those who have some deformity or defect, or those who have special talents or ambitions. The service that a sympathetic, thoughtful principal can render in such cases is often invaluable.

Vocational Guidance. — A special field in which the principal may be of particular assistance to his pupils is that of vocational guidance. There are a great many young people, especially in the small villages and rural communities, who have never had an adequate opportunity of finding out what a great variety of vocations there are, nor had their ambitions stimulated to aspire to anything beyond their narrow horizon. To show such young persons what the opportunities for a life work are is an inestimable service. With this in view the principal should read as extensively as he has time along the lines of vocational guidance. A recent book on that subject which many principals will find useful is *Occupation*, by Gowin and Wheatley (Ginn & Co.). Another equally important field for personal guidance by the principal is that of character formation. It is all too common for young men and women to gravitate to low ideals and sordid, sensuous living. In many cases this is due to the sheer narrowness of their horizon. They are merely copying the only mature persons they have seen. If they could be shown how the other half live, the better half, it would often change the direction of their lives. Too often there is nobody to do this for them but the principal and his corps of teachers.

Any school man of long experience can give numerous instances of what a little personal attention can do for a boy

or a girl. For example, a boy from a family of unskilled laborers of low ideals and narrow horizon is directed into the ministry; another boy, unusually talented, who has worked his way through school and is about to give up the struggle for higher education, is secured a little assistance and becomes a useful college professor; a girl is shown the possibilities of rural school teaching and becomes a community leader; such are the stars in the principal's crown.

The Importance of Personality. — The secret of doing this kind of work successfully is to a very large degree the principal's own personality. Someone has said that "a keen sense of right and wrong, a sensitive conscience, a consecrated spirit of service, a perception of the infinite possibilities of other lives, a feeling of love and reverence for the Supreme Being," are necessary to the equipment of a great teacher. Without such a personality no principal can properly influence boys and girls. Fortunate indeed is the man or woman who can look back on several years of intimate association with such a personality. Often the destructive influence of a bad home or a bad environment or a limited outlook upon life has been successfully counteracted by such a teacher. On the other hand a child remembers the uncertain and hypocritical acts of an insincere teacher for years; and it kills all the good influence of his personality. Children are almost infallible judges of motives, especially if they are associated with one for a long time; and the only way to secure and keep a child's confidence and respect is to show him slowly but surely that one is sincere and genuinely devoted to the welfare of his pupils.

A common mistake in trying to understand other people is to judge others by ourselves. Nothing is surer to blind one

to individual differences. Children are not like their teachers, nor like each other. Some are motor minded, some are image thinkers, and others conceptual thinkers. There is the plodder, the dullard, the sentimental and emotional, and the unawakened; and it is only by making a study of these differences that one can become a master of the situation.

The successful teacher or principal must be a man of vision, one who can see great possibilities in even the dirtiest, ragged-est, and most uninviting pupils of his school. He little realizes how soon these boys will be lawyers, doctors, ministers, or business men, whose services he himself may be glad to seek. It often happens that a teacher is able to see no good in a pupil. Only a few years ago a boy was forced out of school because every teacher he ever had discouraged him and recognized in him no ability of any kind. To-day he is leader of a municipal band in one of our large cities, drawing a salary far in excess of the salaries of his former pedagogues.

Acquaintance with Parents. It is also important that the principal should be intimately acquainted with the parents and patrons as well as with the pupils, the chief reason being to secure their hearty coöperation, which is so desirable on behalf of the children. The principal should, therefore, keep the parents as well informed as possible as to what the children are doing at school. This can be done in part through the monthly report blanks. There is danger, however, that these report blanks may never come to the attention of the parents, especially in those cases where it is most desirable that they should. The teacher should take particular pains that pupils do not trick him at this point. If the report blank has no other effect than to educate a youngster in dishonesty, lying, and even forgery, it misses its mark, to express the matter

very mildly indeed. It may be necessary for the teacher to have the bona fide signatures of the parents on file in his office ; and it will not be amiss for him to call up by telephone or even visit the parents in cases where he is suspicious that the reports are not being delivered. If he is tactful in these interviews the facts can be brought to light apparently upon the parent's inquiry rather than the teacher's initiative.

This suggests that visiting the homes of his pupils is an important part of the teacher's and even the principal's duty. There is as much reason for the teacher as for the minister to make pastoral calls. This practice is systematically carried out by the most thorough and progressive principals in small villages. A visit to a youngster's home often establishes the most satisfactory personal relations between a teacher and pupil, — a thing that can sometimes be achieved in no other way.

It is important, also, to induce the parents to visit the school and see it in operation. This can be accomplished to some extent by inviting the parents personally to visit it at their own convenience. Visiting day is sometimes held to advantage. Those who have used it report that this is a fairly successful way of securing the attendance of that class of parents whose attendance is, on account of their reticence, the hardest to secure.

The Parent-Teachers' League. -- But perhaps the most essential device of all for securing coöperation of the patrons and the school is through the Parent-Teachers' League. Most readers are, no doubt, more or less familiar with this institution, which has now a national organization with a state president in almost every state. The principal can no doubt learn from the county superintendent who the state president is, and by

corresponding with him learn the details of effecting a local organization. For the benefit of those who may not be familiar with the Parent-Teachers' League a few words of description will be sufficient to enable a resourceful principal to get the organization started in his own school. There should be a president, secretary-treasurer, and an executive, or program, committee. This organization can be effected at a meeting of the patrons called for the purpose. The programs should consist of short talks, followed by discussions, if the people will participate therein. Patrons can always be found who will make such talks. As often as there is opportunity speakers may be brought in from out of town. The program should include as a rule an informal social hour, usually with light refreshments. It helps in securing attendance to have a banner that can be awarded the room that is represented at the Parent-Teachers' meeting by the most parents. The management of the association should apparently be in the hands of the patrons; but the teachers must, of course, stand ready behind the scenes to keep everything moving with snap and interest. The Parent-Teachers' League is destined to enjoy a considerable development. It should acquire a legal status in school organization, and out of it there should grow an advisory board of education to serve as a medium for the functioning of public opinion.

The Irate Parent. — One of the most difficult problems for the principal to handle is the irate parent. When this specimen of the human species breaks into the superintendent's office for a characteristic interview, he should never be allowed to remain standing, but should be insistently invited to take a seat. Psychology teaches that the physical attitude affects the state of mind. Now the physical attitude that

naturally accompanies a stormy interview, is, of course, to stand; and to stand, as anger grows, nearer and nearer to the object of anger. In extreme instances the fists are clenched and the head thrust forward. The irate visitor is half beaten in advance when he has been seated in a reclining posture in a comfortable chair some ten feet distant from the superintendent, who leans comfortably back in his own chair behind his desk. If the principal is a man of affairs as well as a pedagogue he will have met the parents of his pupils at the lodge, club, or church and thus have the advantage of an established acquaintance and confidence. Most of the disagreeable experiences between parent and principal arise through lack of acquaintance, and might have been avoided had these two been previously brought together in some field of activity outside the school.

The Value of Public Approval. — There are several other reasons why the principal should be on intimate and friendly terms with as large as possible a proportion of his constituency. In the first place he should know what they think about the school, and what they think the school ought to do for them and their children. The wise principal is always on the lookout for suggestions from his patrons as to how the school can be improved. It is but bigotry and conceit to imagine that the commonest laborer in the community, or the most conservative grandfather, has nothing whatever to contribute to the principal's stock of ideas. If respectful search for the opinion of such persons does nothing more it keeps the principal in close, sympathetic touch with the people's opinion; and that is important. In the second place, the friendship of the people is an inestimable asset to the school man when his time of need comes, for come at last it is always bound to do.

One or two disgruntled patrons can always gather around them a small but perhaps increasing circle of sympathizers; and in the course of years it is almost unavoidable that the principal most offend a considerable number of his patrons. Finally the clouds of disapproval lower in the west, and school boards too often deem it wise to seek shelter in a change of administration. At such a time as this the principal is safest who has the largest number of personal friends who believe in his sincere devotion to their children and to the school.

The Making of Public Opinion. — The village principal is in a public station, and he holds a relation to the public like that of no one else in the community. This is especially true in European villages, and will be increasingly so here as this country grows older and the professional status of teaching more developed and recognized. The principal is a maker of public opinion, and if he is of the caliber that his position calls for he will be able to function in this capacity to the great advantage of his community. Primarily it is with respect to his policy that he is responsible for the creation of public opinion. He must devise ways and means of securing wise and proper publicity for that policy. The more cleverly he can blaze the trail by mere suggestion the better. The clever leader leads the people of his community to believe that they are leading themselves. This perhaps can be achieved through private conversation, for which the principal should never be too busy. There will arise from time to time opportunities for the principal to make public addresses; and the Parent-Teachers' League should increase the number of such opportunities to unfold his projects. A judicious use may be made also of the local press. Of course it goes without saying that the principal must exercise common sense in the use of this

organ. The principal's policy is not, however, the only matter concerning which a useful man will make public sentiment. The right kind of man, if he stays long enough in a place, should be able to mold the sentiment and activities of the community in many of its features. There are many public occasions upon which a popular, trusted, and useful principal will be invited to serve. Some villages will work a man to death in trifling matters of a public nature if he will let them. On the other hand, some men of an officious temperament will thrust themselves in where they are not wanted. Nothing else but common sense will point out the kind of public activities that he should steer clear of. It goes without saying that among these is politics. The right kind of man will make himself useful in the local church of his choice without giving offense to any one.

The Social Survey. - This chapter ought not to be concluded without a few paragraphs about the social survey. The survey idea is not new. Geological surveys, designed to discover and locate our mineral resources, have long been in use. Professor L. H. Bailey, formerly of the Cornell University College of Agriculture, Ithaca, N. Y., has for more than twenty-five years advocated the agricultural survey, designed to discover and make known the capabilities of every locality, so that the most profitable program may be scientifically worked out by each community. While his aims were primarily economic, he has himself been a leader in the extension of the rural survey to social as well as economic matters. His theory is that "the taking stock of the exact condition and materials of country life is immensely important, for we cannot supply remedies before we make a diagnosis, and an accurate diagnosis must rest on a multitude of facts that we do not now possess."

"Every thorough survey," he adds, "should be the forerunner of new ideals for the communities, and new points of crystallization of local effort. It should make new paths. And no small part of the value of such surveys will be the discovery of great numbers of earnest, competent men and women on the farms who may be made local leaders." Ministers as well as leaders of the country life movement have taken up the survey idea; and the literature of the country church has been full of it. Numerous social surveys have been made from the standpoint of the church; and numerous cities have been surveyed from the standpoint of the school. These facts should suggest to the village principal that a community survey should be undertaken jointly as a coöperative enterprise, by school authorities, ministers, representatives of the business interests, and women's clubs. The more agencies coöperate in it the more successful and useful it is likely to be.

Nothing that a village principal can do is more stimulating than to make, or cause to have made, a thoroughgoing social survey of his village. He is sure to discover things he did not know before, and things that the people did not know. These discoveries in turn raise the question as to what can be done to correct defects. To raise such a question will provoke discussion and generate interest in community affairs. Almost inevitably somebody will start something. It will almost inevitably result in the school adapting itself more intelligently to the needs of the community.

A social survey is an inventory of the social resources and liabilities of the community. It may be limited or exhaustive in its scope, depending upon the aim of the survey and the resources at the disposal of the surveyors. The following

outline is offered as suggestive of some of the more important matters that may be investigated in a community survey.

OUTLINE FOR A SOCIAL SURVEY.

ECONOMIC

1. Soil survey.
2. Other industrial resources.
3. List of industries, with number and social status of persons engaged in each.
4. Conditions of farming (in agricultural sections).
5. Extent, conditions, and effects of tenancy.
6. Pay and social status of industrial workers.
7. Special features peculiar to the community.

POPULATION

1. Number.
2. Nationalities.
3. Increasing or decreasing.
4. Where do the young people go?

FAMILY CONDITIONS

1. Size of families.
2. Tenants or renters.
3. Quality of homes.
4. Standards of living, quality of housekeeping, etc.
5. Musical instruments, periodicals, pictures, etc.
6. Is family intercourse wholesome and happy, or otherwise?

RECREATION

1. The play life of the children.
2. Young people's recreational activities.
3. Community gatherings.
4. The use of art for recreational purposes.
5. Fraternal orders.
6. Commercialized recreations.
7. Saloons, etc.

MORAL AND RELIGIOUS RESOURCES

1. Churches: membership, attendance condition (growing or declining).
2. Non-attendance at churches, with causes.
3. Moral conditions of various sorts.
4. What sort of young men does the place produce?
5. Crime, prostitution, drunkenness, etc.

EDUCATIONAL

1. Educational equipment of adults.
2. Of minors over school age.
3. Children under school age out of school.
4. Proportion of children graduating from high school.
5. Attendance at higher institutions.
6. Present occupation of children passing out of the sixth grade during a five-year period.
7. Industrial training the locality demands.

This outline is intended only as suggestive. The data gathered under many of these headings will readily lend itself to tabulation and graphic presentation. In almost every case the data, when tabulated and graphed, will suggest measures for the correction of defects. These should be stated clearly and constructively. The value of the survey will consist chiefly in the constructive or reconstructive community work that it gives rise to.

For the guidance of any principal who wishes to secure a social survey of his village, the authors would recommend a pamphlet by C. J. Galpin, Professor of Rural Sociology in the University of Wisconsin. It is entitled: *The Method of Making a Social Survey of a Rural Community*. Also *The Survey Idea in Country Life Work*, by L. H. Bailey of Cornell University. A careful reading of this pamphlet will be well worth while, as it will render the survey more cautious and scientific, which is vastly important. Various pamphlets of

instruction and printed reports of completed rural surveys can be secured, in some cases free, by addressing the Universities of Minnesota and Wisconsin, Cornell University, the Russell Sage Foundation, and the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions.

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The best discussion of the extent and causes of retardation and elimination. Should be in every principal's library.

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Contains enlightening discussions of retardation. A valuable book.

BLOOMFIELD, MEYER. *Readings in Vocational Guidance.*

A good book on the subject of vocational guidance.

BREWER, JOHN M. *The Vocational-Guidance Movement.*

"The first comprehensive, critical presentation of vocational guidance in all its aspects."

BROWN, J. F. *The American High School.*

Contains some valuable hints on the subject of this chapter.

GALPIN, C. J. *The Method of Making a Social Survey of a Rural Community.*

The best manual. Address: University of Wisconsin.

GOWIN and WHEATLEY. *Occupation.*

A textbook in vocational guidance. Describes various occupations.

HOAG and TERMAN. *Health Work in the Schools.*

No principal can read this book without being impressed with the importance of knowing the physical condition of each individual child.

MOREHOUSE, FRANCES M. *The Discipline of the School.*

Chapter II contains a good section (pp. 28-34) on "The Mode of Control through Personal Influence."

WILLIAMS, J. HAROLD (Whittier, Cal.). *Scale for Grading Neighborhood Conditions.*

Principals desiring to make a neighborhood survey will do well to write for this scale.

PART THREE

ADAPTING THE SCHOOL TO THE NEEDS OF THE CHILD

CHAPTER VII

THE GRADING SYSTEM

IN Part Three we shall take up grading, promotions, attendance, course of study, students' social and other activities, sanitation and health inspection, and plans for grouping the grades. These topics seem to associate themselves together rather naturally because in each case the child and his needs are to the fore. In the conduct of the school, even if along traditional lines, the principal's daily concern must be the welfare of the pupils. It is important, therefore, that he be familiar with the approved practice in all these matters. However, schools everywhere are in process of change, and always, if that change is intelligent, with a view to better serving the interests of the children. Accordingly the progressive principal needs to know what changes are being advocated nowadays for the express purpose of better adapting the school to the needs of the child. This indicates the task of Part Three.

THE "LOCK-STEP" SYSTEM

Rise of the Class Method. - Surprising as it may seem, the method of teaching pupils by classes is scarcely more than a hundred years old. In olden times parents who could afford to educate their children employed a tutor to give private lessons. We still buy music instruction in that out-of-date fashion. Then a school was only a group of young persons

taking private lessons. In colonial days, and even well on into the nineteenth century, our American schools were conducted in that way. The class method was invented, to be sure, in the seventeenth century, by a Frenchman named La Salle, but it did not come into general use till the nineteenth century. Even to-day the old method remains in some Sunday schools of non-English-speaking churches; the children are called up one at a time and heard to recite.

A word might be inserted here about class instruction in instrumental music. Class instruction on the violin is now being successfully given in many progressive schools. A beginning has also been made with group teaching on the piano. Other instruments will follow. This venture will undoubtedly prove to be of the highest significance because it will make instrumental instruction cheap enough so that all can get it. Music is one of the things about which everybody ought to know something; there are the weightiest sociological reasons why the public schools should furnish universal elementary musical education. The class method promises to make this practicable. Progressive principals should inform themselves on the method, and if possible get it started in their schools. Information as to how to begin can undoubtedly be secured by correspondence with the nearest important conservatory of music, or by addressing any of the leading musical magazines. Of course the very best plan would be to persuade the school board to send the school music teacher where she can learn the method first hand.

But to resume: the demand for universal elementary education was the necessity that mothered the class system; and the growth of schools with the growth of American democracy extended the use of the method. It involved, of course, some

attempt at grading the school. In the old-fashioned district schools of forty years ago there were the primer, first, second, third, fourth, and fifth reader classes. The other classes usually corresponded roughly to these: there were the A, B, C, and sometimes the D, classes in arithmetic and geography, for instance, though there was very little attempt to force a given pupil into the same class in all subjects. A big boy might be in the fifth reader class, the B geography class, but in arithmetic ahead of even the A class, studying square root, for instance, all by himself. But during the last generation, especially in our city schools, the grading system has been pushed to its limits, so that we now have the eight grades, and each pupil is supposed to be in a given grade in all his subjects. Partly for purposes of standardization, and partly through blind imitation of city schools, the grading system has been copied, sometimes quite rigidly, even in the country schools, often with the result that more recitations instead of fewer, as was the original purpose, have been forced upon the distracted teacher.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Class System. — The class method has some very decided advantages which we should never overlook, not even when it is derisively dubbed “the lock-step system.” It is economical (too economical, in fact!); it affords opportunity both for wholesome rivalry and for coöperation, and secures the zest of group activity and the interstimulation of wits.

But the grading system, especially where it is rigorously enforced, has a very serious drawback: it ignores individual differences. For average children it does well enough, but the child who for any reason is exceptional is made the slave of the average. The one, for instance, who has some special

talent or ability may have his gift stifled by the grind of the machine. This is a distinct loss to society, for genius is one of its most precious possessions. But a more obvious, though less serious, damage is to those who on account of irregular attendance, deficient ability, or peculiar tastes, are unable to keep up with their grade. These become confused through failure to grasp the subject matter, fall hopelessly behind the class, fail to pass, repeat the grade, are therefore retarded and discouraged, and finally drop out of school altogether, to be relegated as a rule to inferior industrial positions. This is a very serious evil in both city and country, especially as it constitutes a sort of social selection based on the artificial standards of the school. The school literature of the day is full of it; but nobody seems to know just what percentage of elimination is due to it; nor has anybody attempted to estimate the amount of mental distress it entails upon its victims, nor the discouragement, inefficiency, and failure that result. The principal can form some idea of these matters and their effects upon his own pupils through a study of his age and grade distribution tables (see Figures 27, 28, and 29, Chapter XV). For instance Figures 27 and 28, as filled out for the Carrington, North Dakota, school, show that in this school the percentage of retardation gradually increases to the seventh grade, where it drops to about half. This evidently means that retarded pupils drop out without finishing the eighth grade. The question is, Why? Also, What can be done to prevent the retardation and elimination? This chart presents these problems forcibly to the attention of the principal, and to the public also if the chart is given publicity.

Removing the Disadvantages. - Several methods have been devised for preventing these objectionable conditions, but

none of them is very practicable in a small school. Perhaps the most famous device is the Batavia system, which supplements class instruction with individual instruction, for which a special teacher is provided. Another is the Cambridge plan, which sends one group of children through the grades by twenty-three stages and another group by seventeen stages. By this arrangement there is always a class just a little behind or just a little ahead of where any given child is, so that he can be shifted with only a little gain or loss. Another plan is to have a special room or class for those who need special attention. Burk, of the San Francisco Normal, the enemy of the lock-step system, practically abandons the class method entirely. These plans all work well enough in large schools where there are several classes of the same grade. If a superintendent has say two hundred children doing sixth-grade work, and a corresponding number in each of the other grades, he can group those two hundred children into classes to suit himself. But if he has only fifteen or twenty children in each grade he can do nothing of the kind. In that case each teacher must have two or three grades, and the grades must be a full year apart. Practically all that has been written on this subject for city schools is utterly useless, therefore, to the village principal.

In any school large enough to employ a teacher for each grade, with thirty to forty pupils in a grade, the plan of semi-annual promotions can be worked out by dividing the room into two divisions, A and B. Then at the opening of the first semester the 6th grade teacher will have two classes, 6A and 6B. At the end of the first semester the 6B is promoted to 6A and the 6A to 7B. This does not mean that the pupils must change rooms, but the same teacher remains with these

pupils until the end of the year, presenting in this time the work as outlined in the course of study for 6B, 6A, and 7B. With this arrangement pupils failing of promotion repeat only one half year's work; those capable of double promotion can skip one half year's work; and, too, the objection of pupils changing teachers too frequently is done away with. This plan will necessitate an 8th-grade teacher who is perhaps a college graduate and who can present high school work to the 9B class during the second semester.

At the present stage of our educational development the principal of a small village school cannot in this way solve the problem. Indeed there is no entirely satisfactory solution for him. It may, however, be solved in part; and the most important step has been taken when the principal and his teachers become keenly conscious of the problem. If they realize that serious and irreparable damage is likely to be done to the children their natural sympathy will prompt them to do everything they can to avert the tragedy. With the teachers in that frame of mind the battle is half won.

Several suggestions can be offered. The scientific means suggested in a previous chapter — medical inspection and the psychological clinic — should, if possible, be utilized for discovering why children fall below grades, or what their special talents may be. The diagnosis of the standard tests will also furnish valuable information about individuals. Progressive principals keep a card history of each pupil (see Figures 10, 15, and 17, Chapter XV), which enables them to judge each case intelligently, and also to draw general conclusions as to where pupils lose time, and why. It goes without saying that grade marks should be made up conscientiously and accurately, in order to do no injustice — or

better, in order to do as little injustice as possible. Of course the tests are better.

The fundamental remedy for the drawbacks of the graded class system is individual instruction. Teachers should be encouraged to do as much of this as they can, little as that may prove to be. But individual instruction, the teacher should understand, is an art in itself. It involves a peculiar technique, which advocates of the Batavia method sum up under two rules, as follows: First, the teacher, not the pupils, should decide who needs the individual instruction. Ambitious, conscientious students are apt to come voluntarily to the teacher for assistance. Obviously they are the ones who are best able to keep up to grade without it, however much they might profit by it. On the other hand, those who need help are often the least likely to realize their need and to desire the help. Or they may be too reticent about asking for it. With them, therefore, the teacher should take the initiative. Secondly, individual instruction, as a rule, involves the development method rather than the telling method. Instead of helping the pupil, help him to help himself. Ground him in general principles; see that he understands. Discover the dark spots, and help him to see them clearly.

Time for Individual Instruction. - There are various devices for securing the necessary time for this individual instruction. Some teachers keep pupils after school hours for this purpose; but this puts the additional assistance in the light of a punishment, and discounts its value. Other principals dismiss school a half hour earlier, keeping the laggards for extra instruction. The smaller the school the more difficult this will be because where each teacher has two or three grades the

program is crowded at best. Besides it involves two drawbacks: first, it is difficult to keep pupils from regarding their detention as a penalty or disgrace; secondly, the half hour ought to be made valuable for these who are sent home. A better way to get time for this individual instruction is to plan, if possible, for a period of thirty to forty minutes during both the morning and afternoon sessions when there are no classes reciting and the teacher is free to help the backward pupil; then the time given will appeal to pupils as a privilege rather than a punishment. This period should not be the last period of the day.

In the smaller schools time devoted to individual instruction will usually have to be saved out of class periods. Advocates of the Batavia system, for instance, recommend that one or two class periods a week be devoted to individual instruction. Shortening the time devoted to recitations so as to help a few means lengthening the study periods of the many, and this is a dangerous practice. In American elementary schools recitation periods are too short and study periods too long as it is. If, therefore, study periods are to be lengthened provision must be made to secure profitable use of the extra time. The secret of success in this is careful and skillful assignment of lessons. The more skillfully the teacher teaches her class, especially the more skillfully she makes the assignment, the more time she can save for individual teaching. But even at that she will not have enough.

One of the authors has recently been trying to work out the supervised study proposition in the high school by having periods sixty minutes in length and devoting part of the period to preparation and part to recitation. This plan is a great help in teaching pupils how to study. The greatest

difficulty is the necessary lengthening of the school day. This, however, is sure to come as we continue to introduce more industrial and laboratory courses, the value of which cannot be questioned.

So far as the principal is concerned, then, the only remedy for the so-called lock step is largely in the pedagogical zeal and skill which he can secure and develop in his teachers. The best, however, that principal and teachers can do will not be enough. The real solution waits upon the taxpayer. Nothing but a more adequate teaching force will solve the problem. As soon as possible, therefore, the board should add another teacher. As will be pointed out later the principal himself needs office help. If he is to develop real educational leadership he cannot spend all his time in teaching and routine office work. Perhaps in some schools a woman might be employed to do the work of the school board clerk, look after routine matters in the principal's office, and do some teaching, perhaps the individual instruction needed in all the grades, or commercial subjects in high school. If she received the clerk's pay her salary would not be a total addition to the budget. Other combinations of work, including always provision for individual instruction, will suggest themselves to the principal. But whatever the combination, let the additional help be secured as soon as possible. The use of high schools for teacher training will help solve this problem, as teachers in training can be used for special work in the grades. Ultimately the time will come when individual instruction will be adequately provided for. When that time comes the course of study can be better adapted to the tastes and talents of individual pupils.

Perhaps a vacation school is a solution which, at the present

stage of development, the board can be induced to provide for. Backward children will usually be willing, sometimes anxious, to attend a summer session, and the encouragement of parents can usually be secured. The vacation school also affords opportunity to experiment in various educational innovations.

GRADES AND TESTS

Closely related to the grading system is the problem of marks and how to compute them. The usual custom is to depend partly on the daily grade and partly on examination grades. The more carefully kept the record of the pupils' daily work, the more accurate grades are likely to be. The principal will have to coach some teachers in this detail.

Examinations. — Examinations are almost universally relied upon for determining the results of pupils' work. They involve some difficulties and are subject to some disadvantages. This is not the place to describe the technique of writing examination questions; that is to be found in books on the teaching process. The principal should himself be master of this item of technique, and he should see that his teachers learn it. It is well to require teachers to file with the principal in advance the questions to be used, and the principal should reserve the right to eliminate and insert questions at his discretion. This will tend to insure care in their preparation.

Pupils' Marks. — The disadvantage of examinations is that the returns cannot be relied upon. Investigations have emphasized the fact that a given paper will be graded differently by different teachers, and even by the same teacher at different times. The difference is sometimes very astonishing, quite shocking, indeed. In other words, the examination is an unreliable test of a pupil's work. This does not necessarily

mean that it should be abandoned, but that it should be conducted with care, and supplemented by other means of appraising work, especially the standard tests. Examinations should therefore never count for more than one third while the recitations count for two thirds of the final grade. Some teachers supplement these two items with a third, namely, their own common-sense estimate of the pupil's work, independent of daily grades or examinations. The three elements are then averaged. There is something to be said in favor of this. Psychology teaches that the subconscious mind is a rich repository of mental wealth accumulated from the almost infinite variety of past experience. All this we draw upon in our common-sense estimates of persons. When we try to make up our estimates of mental power and achievements on a formal score-card basis things are apt to be overlooked that common sense would subconsciously consider; or, if not overlooked, given too much or too little weight. Psychologists who advocate formal methods of measuring mental results often overlook the psychological significance of the subconscious elements in judgment. All formal computations of grades and marks may well, therefore, be checked up by the teacher's common-sense estimate of the pupil's work. For though common sense has its limitations, especially those of prejudice, administrators and theorists should recognize that for judging so complex a thing as mental achievement it possesses resources that cannot wisely be dispensed with.

It is better to render grades in letters than in percentage for the reason that percentage grades pretend to accuracy and minute discriminations that are impossible. If students are graded E, excellent, G, good, P, passing, F, failed, false pretenses of minute and impossible accuracy are avoided and

trouble is prevented. We are probably coming to the point where only two letters will be used, one for satisfactory, the other for unsatisfactory, work on the part of pupils, thus doing away entirely with discriminations between students. These grades would be awarded pupils not only upon the result of their work but also upon the effort they have put forth. Under the old system of using numerous letters or figures a brilliant pupil always has a much better average when he has not exerted half the effort that a backward pupil has. By using only two letters, both pupils, if their efforts approximate the best of which they are capable, will receive more nearly similar grades, and neither will suffer any discouragement.

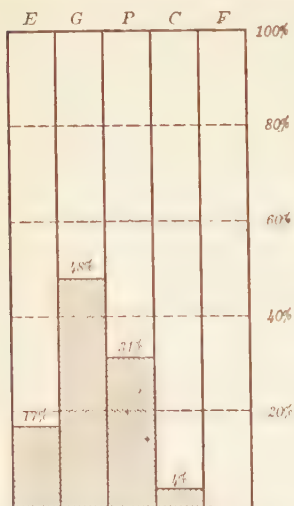


FIG. 1. Chart Showing Distribution of a Teacher's Marks.

Getting Teachers to Mark Alike

— Teachers differ in the rigor with which they grade pupils, some being extremely lenient, and others too severe. To remedy this defect — especially in the high school — it is well to have the teachers compare their records in this respect. Have each teacher compute the percentage she gives of each grade. Suppose for instance that of all the grades Miss Smith gave last term 17 per cent were E's, 48 per cent G's, 31 per cent P's, and 4 per cent C's, and no F's. She may then compare these percentages with those of her colleagues. A faculty meeting may

well be devoted to this comparison, the record of each teacher being placed on the blackboard in graphic form. If

the differences are very great an explanation may be asked for. Thus, if Miss Jones gives only $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent F's and 44 per cent E's, she should show special reason why such high marking is justified. The probability is she will convince her principal and her colleagues, and perhaps even herself, that she has been too lenient. This exercise will tend to secure greater uniformity. The use of only two letters as suggested above will obviate much of this difficulty.

State examinations are a half loaf, and as such are better than no bread; but they should be abolished just as soon as adequate supervision and scientific standardization, for which they are a cheap substitute, can be provided. Schools complying with certain requirements as to qualification of teachers, length of periods, equipment, number of pupils per teacher, and amount of time the principal devotes to supervision, should be exempt from state examinations.

This is perhaps a good place to remark that it is unwise to worry little children about passing. Worry with young children accomplishes nothing, because self-control and power of concentration are as yet undeveloped. Grades above the sixth, including the high school, are full of youngsters who are satisfied with a mere pass; one reason being that they were worried too soon, and the worry has worn off. Instead of worrying young children it would be better for teachers to study the subject of motivation and undertake to adapt their methods to the interests of child life.

The Standard Tests. — During the past ten years educational science has been developing a scientific method of examining and grading pupils which is destined to supersede examinations entirely, especially in the elementary school. We refer to the standard tests. These furnish not only the

apparatus for testing school children, but also standards by which the principal can determine whether or not his pupils in each grade are as far advanced as they may reasonably be expected to be. Tests have now been worked out for most of the elementary and some of the high school subjects. In all up-to-date schools they are taking the place of the older devices for determining the grades of pupils. The use of these tests in the appraisal of school work eliminates the personal equation as it cannot be eliminated from the traditional examination. The tendency of the times in education will compel the principal to adopt the standard tests and rely upon them chiefly for grading and promoting pupils. So important are they that an entire chapter (VIII) has been inserted in order to assist principals untrained in their use to introduce them into their schools.

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discussion principally of age and grade distribution as discovered by the Salt Lake City Survey.

WILSON, H. B., and G. M. *The Motivation of School Work.*

Discusses the theory of motivation in general, and explains how to motivate the various elementary subjects.

CHAPTER VIII

INTRODUCING THE STANDARD TESTS

Standard Tests Have Come to Stay. — One of the most important developments in education during recent years is the scientific measurement of results. It has become increasingly evident to school men that all our attempts to estimate how much we are accomplishing have been vague and indefinite. Each carpenter has used as long a foot rule as suited his own notion, and the amount of silver in the dollar has varied with different private mints. But the growth and application of science depends upon the fixing of definite standards and the adoption of definite units of measurement. If education is to be scientific, therefore, it is necessary to develop an apparatus that will make quantitative exactness possible. It is with this aim in view that work in the field of educational measurements has been pushed forward with such vigor and enthusiasm during the last ten years. Professor E. L. Thorndike deserves more credit for pioneering this field than does anyone else, though the number of workers is now legion. The movement has had to overcome almost unlimited opposition from the inertia of conservative school men, but its growth has been continuous and rapid; and to-day educational measurement has been accepted by the American public, while tests and scales are used not only throughout this country but around the world. Exact knowledge is taking the place of personal opinion in estimating

the results of teaching, and evidence is displacing guesswork in scientific education as in other scientific work. The difficulty of applying objective scales and standards to the more intangible and spiritual aspects of education is realized by none so clearly as by the promoters themselves of the movement; but they are none the less earnest in their efforts to measure accurately such phases of school work as do lend themselves to measurement, confident that the more accurately we do what can be measured the more likely we are to succeed in imparting the ideals and attitudes that cannot as yet be measured. Meantime exact measurement is being applied to an ever widening field of school work.

The Principal Must Use Them. — The movement has certainly arrived at such a stage of its development that no village principal can afford to ignore it, whether he consider his own professional self-respect, the good of his school, or the future of his career. There really is nothing he can undertake that will prove more awakening and stimulating than actually to begin the use of the standard tests, a fact that has been demonstrated by the experience of thousands of progressive superintendents. It is the purpose of this chapter, therefore, to give such simple instructions as will enable a principal who really knows nothing about standard tests to make such a beginning.

Before offering these suggestions, however, it is fair to state that the best plan for the principal who has no training in the use of standard tests is to go to some good summer school and take a course. The next best thing would perhaps be to fill the first vacancy that occurs in his staff with someone who has had a good training. Such a teacher ought to be a great help in introducing them. But beware of the smatterer.

Spelling. — For the inexperienced principal, who must depend upon his own resources, it is well to select as a starter some test that is simple and easy to give. The Ayres Spelling Scale (see Fig. 2) is recommended for this purpose. It is easy to use because judgment is not required in grading the results. This scale is supposed to contain the one thousand most commonly used words in the English language. They were selected as a result of four careful and extended studies. By a most patient and laborious process of trying out school children with these lists the one thousand words have been arranged into twenty-six groups. The words of each group are of equal difficulty, and the groups are arranged from left to right in the order of their difficulty. The difficulty of each word was determined by the percentage of pupils in a given grade that, by actual experiment, spelled it correctly. For instance, column H was spelled correctly by 100 per cent of fifth graders, and 98 per cent of fourth graders, and accordingly should be spelled correctly by like percentages of pupils in any school. Any fifth grade that spells correctly less than 100 per cent of the words in column H is below standard in spelling. The standards were set by what 70,000 pupils in 84 cities actually did.

It is a very simple thing to give this test. Suppose you wish to score your fourth grade in spelling; you select any column from H to T inclusive. Ayres recommends the column with which the grade you are testing may be expected to make 84 per cent. Following this suggestion you might take column M for a fourth-grade test. You proceed to pronounce the words and have the children write them as in any spelling exercise. It is better to give two or three short tests of twenty-five words each, on consecutive days, than to

MEASURING SCALE FOR ABILITY IN SPELLING

G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T
84	79	73	66	58	50	SECOND GRADE							
94	92	88	84	79	73	66	58	50	THIRD GRADE	58	50	FOURTH GRADE	
99	98	96	94	92	88	84	79	73	66	73	66	58	50
FIFTH GRADE	100	99	98	96	94	92	88	84	79	84	79	73	66
		SIXTH GRADE	100	99	98	96	94	92	88	92	88	84	79
			SEVENTH GRADE	100	99	98	96	94	92	96	94	92	88
by bare are over most make taken street say come know nug all the bet bug	day eat out box bring deer low soft stand know nug red fire law aux	use face miss ride ask get north spot lost know black spring river put boat noag	even ask happy noon think cast card south party know bore inside down step grand side dark	behave ram keep start ask eye glass parry they rev would could should city only	club back under unless beginning died goose suit truck wreck dash fell light bought stop walk ghost	trust extra nug teach happen collected die provide at born solid drill army	except saint capture adopts bridge offer built center front chain death wound tire	eight afraid uncle rather election eldest board shed refuse retract royal objection narrow fourth	spread avoid usual autumn vacation beautiful travel rapid repair importance carried importance fortune	sometimes engage final terrible period addition employ select connection firm machines dropped private command debate	forenoon combination avert neighbor weigh entertain salary publication machines toward differences examination particular concern anecdote secure hour	often stopped dramatic theater improvement century mission arrive supply difference examination particular concern anecdote course neither local	guess circular argument organize announ official estimate accident avertion impossible concern anecdote various decide

FIG. 2. A Cutting from the Ayres Spelling Scale.

Complete copies of this scale may be obtained for five cents apiece. Copies of the monograph describing the investigations which produced it may be obtained for 30 cents each. Address the Russell Sage Foundation, Division of Education, 130 East 22nd Street, New York City.

give a long test all at once, as the element of fatigue would influence the result. When the writing is finished take up the papers and file them away to be scored. Scoring these papers for an average sized class will not be found a very heavy task. If you have used fifty words you will of course subtract 2 per cent for each misspelled word. Grade each paper on the percentage basis. If a given pupil makes about 84 per cent he is just up to grade; he has done just what ought to be expected of a fourth-grade pupil. But if he makes only 66 per cent he is a whole grade below standard; he is no better in spelling than a third grader ought to be.

The Median. — In determining the score of the class as a whole the principal would naturally compute the average score and adopt that as the class score. Instead the "median score" is computed, and this is quite a different matter. To find the "median score" the examiner simply piles the papers on top of each other, in the order of their scores, the lowest at the bottom, the highest at the top. He then selects the middle paper; its score will be the "median score." Thus if there are thirty-five papers in the pile the eighteenth paper will be taken: there will be seventeen above it and seventeen below. If there is an even number of papers, say thirty-six, practice differs; some would take the score of the eighteenth as the median, some would average the scores of the eighteenth and nineteenth. The object of taking the "median score" instead of the average score is because averages are too much affected by one or two extremely bad papers.

If the median score of your fourth grade proves to be below standard, *i.e.* below 84 per cent, you will probably see that the pupils get more drill. Three months later a similar test (using a different column, of course) will be likely to reveal

improvement. But meantime do not make the mistake of using the Ayres lists as spelling lessons, or of otherwise permitting the children to become familiar with them, as in that case they would obviously lose their value as tests. The giving of this simple but scientific test, an experiment that can be performed with the material furnished in this book, will break the ice for the principal in the use of standard tests; and its revelations will in all probability be an eye opener to him, and stimulate him both to improve his work in spelling and also to test out his results in other subjects.

Arithmetic. – After the principal has worked through the Ayres Spelling Scale the authors recommend that he next use the Courtis Arithmetic Tests. These have been the most extensively used of all the tests, and may be secured from S. A. Courtis, 82 Eliot Street, Detroit, Mich. The price is 80 cents per hundred, including instructions and record sheets. One should be sure to ask for full instructions. These tests are almost as simple and easy to give as the spelling test. They are designed to test children from the fourth to the eighth grade inclusive in the four fundamental operations. The standards have been determined with great accuracy, and by their use the principal can ascertain whether or not his pupils, as individuals or as classes, are up to the standard.

The Courtis Arithmetic Tests may well be followed by the Cleveland-Survey Arithmetic Tests. These tests are spiral in nature, like the Ayres Spelling Scale, and can therefore be used with children of different grades. The advantage of these tests over the others is that they are diagnostic, that is, they reveal just where the child's weakness is. This will be illustrated later. The Cleveland-Survey Arithmetic Tests may be secured from the University of Chicago, at \$1.00

per hundred. As in the case of the Courtis Test, the principal will need one copy for each pupil to be examined. Detailed instructions accompany all these tests, but a special request for them should accompany the order.

Handwriting. — In addition to the above the authors suggest the Ayres Handwriting Scale (Russell Sage Foundation, New York City, price 5 cents); and Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Tests (University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., price, 60 cents per hundred, including instructions and record sheets. Ask for instructions also). The Ayres Writing Scale is a sheet of paper about twelve inches wide and three feet long, on which are printed samples of writing. There are, from left to right, eight different qualities, numbered respectively 20, 30, 40, etc., to 90. The pupil's writing is held up against this scale and moved back and forth until it is finally located opposite the sample that it is like in quality. In this way a given pupil's writing is judged to be of quality 40, say, while another's may be judged as equivalent to 60. Many teachers keep the Ayres Scale hanging in their schoolroom, where the children can see it daily, and the children are encouraged to compare their own writing with it to see whether they can improve from week to week. The Ayres Scale requires the teacher's personal judgment to score, and is therefore more difficult than the Ayres Spelling Scale or the Courtis Arithmetic Test; but it is not diagnostic, as is the Freeman Handwriting Scale. For that reason it is easier for a beginner to administer, though ultimately the latter should be used also.

Reading. — Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test is as good as any for the novice. There are three of these tests: No. 1 for grades 3, 4, and 5; No. 2 for grades 6, 7, and 8;

60

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal

Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated

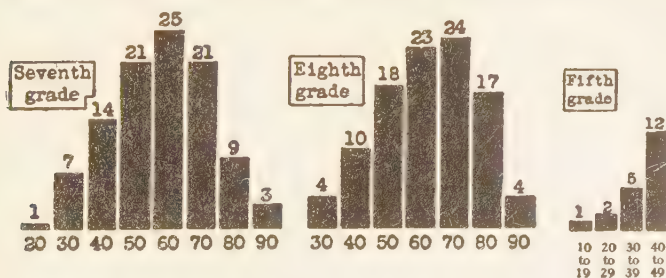


FIG. 3. Cutting from the Ayres Handwriting Scale.

and No. 3 for high school. Each test contains sixteen exercises. The sample page printed herewith is from test No. 1. Explicit instructions are furnished as to how to give the test. The aim is to test the child's silent reading as to (a) speed and (b) comprehension. The speed or rate value of each exercise is indicated at the left, the comprehension value at the right. The scores are computed by adding the values of the exercises which the child completes in the allotted time.

The standard scores are tentatively fixed (1919) as follows by Professor Monroe:

STANDARD MAY SCORES FOR MONROE'S STANDARDIZED SILENT
READING TESTS

Grade	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Comprehension . . .	9.0	14.5	21.0	21.0	24.0	27.5
Rate	60	80	93	92	102	108

That is to say, you can determine whether your pupils are above or below what may properly be expected of them by comparing the scores they make with these standard scores.

Tabulating the Findings.—Statistical treatment of the scores derived from the standard tests is a matter which may be gone into as scientifically and with as much complexity as one's interests dictate and his knowledge permits. One will eventually find himself desiring to investigate statistical methods and graphic presentation. But ignorance of those sciences need deter no one from using the tests. Such tabulations and interpretations as are practically necessary can easily be made by following the directions that accompany the tests; and the studious principal will readily find his way as his needs extend. It should be stated in passing that the tests recommended in this chapter are recommended not because

Rate Value 8	No. 1 "I am not playing, little girl," said the squirrel. "I am running to my home in the hollow tree. Don't you hear my babies calling me? I must feed them." Where was the home of the squirrel? In the	Compre- hension Value 1.3
Rate Value 7	No. 2 The little Pilgrim girls carried their workboxes to the dame-schools and learned to sew and knit as well as to read and write. Where did the girls go with their workboxes? To the	Compre- hension Value 1.3
Rate Value 7	No. 3 When the white men first came to this country they found the red men, or Indians, living in wigwams, made of long poles and covered with skins. Which people lived here first, the white or red?	Compre- hension Value 1.3
Rate Value 9	No. 4 Hiawatha was a little Indian boy. He had no father and no mother. He lived with his grandmother, Nokomis. His home was in a wigwam. Draw a line under the word that tells whom Hiawatha lived with. father aunt mother uncle sister grandmother	Compre- hension Value 1.4
Rate Value 6	No. 5 The cabin of Uncle Tom was a small log building close adjoining to "the house," as the negro designates his master's dwelling. Of what material was Uncle Tom's cabin built?	Compre- hension Value 1.4

FIG. 4. Cutting from Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test.

they are the best with which to test the school but because they are the easiest with which the untrained principal is able to familiarize himself.

Books Needed. — The principal who has given the tests described above, and who makes the proper use of his findings, will begin to appreciate what it means to professionalize his work. He will find himself much interested, and the tests so indispensable that he will insist upon informing himself further. To this end he will desire a really adequate discussion of the whole matter, a thing utterly out of the question in this book, since a whole volume scarcely suffices for that purpose. The latest, and presumably the best, book for the principal to secure is Monroe's *Measuring the Results of Teaching*, published by Houghton Mifflin Co. This book contains a description of the principal tests in use at the time it was published (1918), and also numerous references to other literature. The reader is warned, however, that work in this field is progressing so rapidly that any book must soon become out of date. The principal will do well to inquire of some expert at his own state normal school or university for the most recent and useful literature on the subject.

Comparative Value. This chapter will be concluded with a brief discussion of the uses of standard tests.

First, there is the comparative value. Standards of attainment have been determined in most subjects. That is to say, it has been found out what may reasonably be expected of children of any given grade in any given subject. Thus, sixth-grade children are supposed to score 82 in rate and 19.8 in comprehension in Monroe's Silent Reading Test, 10 in speed and 100 in accuracy in the Courtis test in addition, and 96 per cent with column M of the Ayres Spelling Scale. Thus

the principal discovers whether his classes are up to standard.

By the use of standard tests the principal can compare his own school with neighboring schools, thus developing a wholesome rivalry in which principals, teachers, pupils, and patrons can all participate. In the same way grade can be compared with grade. Moreover there is no better way of revealing to the pupils themselves their own strength and weakness, and of comparing their own attainments at different times. And finally the tests are useful aids in the appraisal of teachers; the teacher whose work produces low scores term after term will be liable to suspicion as an inefficient teacher.

Diagnostic Value.—The second value is the analytic or diagnostic. By the use of the tests the teacher discovers those subjects in which her pupils are weak, and those in which they are strong. One principal discovered that spelling had been overtaught in his school, while, to his surprise and chagrin, his children were way behind in arithmetic, the very subject in which he had prided himself for thoroughness. Certain tests further reveal the precise phase of the subject in which a given child is weak. Thus the Cleveland-Survey Arithmetic Tests carry the matter of diagnosis very much further than do the Courtis Arithmetic Tests. The Courtis Tests reveal those of the four fundamental operations in which the pupil is weakest. This is shown by a graph which comes in blank with the tests themselves. But the Cleveland Tests go much more into detail. Thus in one school the following (in multiplication):

3	4	9	0	5	4	2	7	4	9
2	7	8	2	6	1	9	6	0	5

revealed that the children did not know how to use 9 as a multiplier. Again the following:

$\frac{3}{5} + \frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{4}{9} + \frac{1}{9}$ etc., produced as answers $\frac{4}{10}$ and $\frac{5}{18}$, revealing that the children lacked comprehension of the denominators.

Again, a multiplier with a 0 in it, e.g. $\frac{8563}{207}$, produced trouble.

In short, the test revealed the weak spots where the pupils needed special instruction and drill.

Again, the Freeman Handwriting Scale, unlike the Ayres, enables the teacher to score a pupil's handwriting as to (a) uniformity of slant, (b) uniformity of alignment, (c) quality of line, (d) letter formation, and (e) spacing. This analysis is very useful. It is poor pedagogy to urge a pupil in general terms to improve his writing. It is very good pedagogy, on the other hand, to specify precisely what is wrong with the pupil's handwriting. He then knows just what to correct.

The Tests Redirect Teaching. Once more, the reading tests tend to reveal the particular defect under which the child is laboring. While he may read orally fairly well, he may be very low in silent reading. This may indicate that he does not know how to get the thought from the page, or that his vocabulary is very meager.

Professor Haggerty¹ has gathered data as to the effects of measurement upon school practice. He enumerates six kinds of changes, as follows:

1. Changes in classification of pupils.
2. Changes in school organization.
3. Changes in course of study.
4. Changes in methods of instruction.
5. Changes in time devoted to subjects.
6. Changes in methods of supervision.

¹ Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

Then follow sixteen very interesting pages specifying, under each of these heads, concrete changes that have actually resulted in various cities. The most important use of the standard tests is precisely the changes in school practice that result, and unless they do result it is not worth while to give the tests at all.

The Tests as Incentives. —The fourth value of the tests is their value as incentives. This has already been referred to incidentally under the comparative value. The rivalries created between schools, between rooms, or between classes, appeal in a wholesome way to the spirit of group solidarity and intergroup rivalry, and stimulate all concerned to improve the work of the school. The children themselves respond when the tests are explained to them, though personal rivalries should be avoided. They like to raise the scale of their own handwriting. If they are told after an arithmetic test that a similar one will be given in a few weeks they usually show a marked interest in the drills that are given them meantime. One principal has evolved the following plan. He assigns to each member of the class a number which is known only to himself and the pupil. After any test has been given he draws a line on the blackboard and divides it into parts corresponding to the numbers of the score. In the case of the Ayres Spelling Scale, for example, the line would be divided into tenths from ten to one hundred. The standard score (84 per cent in the case of fourth-grade children using column M) is plainly marked on the line. Then the children's secret numbers are placed at the points on the line indicating the score they have earned. Each pupil can thus see just where he stands with reference to the standard and with reference to the rest of the class. The announcement is made that the test will be repeated later ;

meantime each pupil (except those who are up to standard) endeavors to improve his work in that subject. Those who are up to standard devote their surplus energy to some subject in which they may be below the norm. This principal's experience is that the pupils do not tell their secret numbers to one another. One boy, whose score was high, was afraid to tell for fear he might not do so well next time. This obviates the practice of children knowing each other's grades, a pride-killing abuse. It also obviates individual rivalry, by making each pupil his own rival. Thus the use of standard tests as an incentive helps to solve one of the most perplexing problems of elementary education; namely, the motivation of drill work. There has seemed to be no way of furnishing the pupil a wholesome self-interest in the necessary drill; but this comes nearer reducing the bugbear than anything else at the disposal of the teacher.

REFERENCES

GRAY, WM. S. *Descriptive Lists of Standard Tests, 1917*, in the *Elementary School Journal* for September, 1917.

Describes each of the important standard tests and tells where to get them. A useful pamphlet for the principal. Reprints can be secured from the University of Chicago Press for five cents each. The list in the back of Monroe's book is better, however.

MONROE, W. S. *Measuring the Results of Teaching*.

This is the latest, best, and most complete book on the subject. It serves as a manual for guidance in the use of the standard tests. Every principal should own and use this book.

CHAPTER IX

ATTENDANCE, CURRICULUM, AND ORGANIZATION

A. ATTENDANCE

IRREGULAR attendance is an important cause of retardation and elimination, and the reason is obvious. The child who is irregular in his attendance loses important parts of the subject matter; as a consequence he does not understand the lessons when he is present, he gets hopelessly behind, becomes discouraged, and ultimately fails to pass. After one or two failures to keep up with his class he drops out entirely. But this is not all; the irregular attendant hinders the class just because he does drag behind. He not only wastes the taxpayers' investment in his own education, but he also wastes part of the investment in that of his school-mates. In some states he deprives his district of state aid by cutting down attendance below the percentage required by law for the granting of aid.

Inducing Pupils to Attend Regularly. — Various incentives are resorted to for inducing pupils to attend regularly. These are too familiar to need description here, and their discussion in detail hardly belongs in a work of this kind. The practice of requiring written excuses from parents often leads to their forgery by pupils. A system that is so administrated as to train young citizens in such gross dishonesty cannot be too severely condemned. To reward good attendance by exempting from

some school duties — *e.g.* granting quarter holidays — puts school work in the wrong light. Children should be taught to appreciate what the state does for them, not taught that they are lucky to escape it. A healthy rivalry as to attendance percentage between schools, or between different rooms in the same school, or between classes, is a wholesome device. In the school of which one of the writers was principal there is a silver loving cup which is left for a period of one month in the custody of the room having the highest percentage of attendance and punctuality the previous month. He also offered one fourth holiday for the room having the highest percentage of attendance and punctuality during these months, but the holidays were to be used at the discretion of the teacher in visiting some place of interest, in making an excursion into the country, or in some similar manner out of the ordinary routine but valuable to the pupil.

In the last analysis, however, the success of these devices depends largely upon the attitude and personality of the teacher or principal who administers them. He must himself consider irregularity the serious matter that it really is, and he must possess the knack of talking to his pupils in such a way as to make them consider it serious. Making the school work interesting and vital is better than any of these devices. If the children like their school, and the parents believe in its value, there is but little use for artificial incentives. Intelligent attention devoted to the curriculum and to motivation, will, in most cases, go far toward solving the attendance problem.

Enforcing the Law. — If regularity of attendance were only a matter of influencing the children it would be comparatively easy to handle. It becomes difficult when indifference or

opposition on the part of parents has to be overcome. In this respect communities differ very greatly. In some places school sentiment is strong, and only the exceptional patron is indifferent; in other places the case is entirely otherwise. In German-Russian settlements in North Dakota, for instance, families can be found that have never attended school; and it is the usual thing to resist school attendance, especially in summer, as soon as children are large enough to be of any use on the farms. In industrial centers comparatively few children complete the eighth grade. In such cases the principal confronts the task of creating sentiment; his problem is to persuade patrons to send their children to school. There are several means of doing this: private interviews, the parent-teachers' league, the columns of the local paper, and commencement and other occasions. Probably the best way in the long run, however, is to enforce the law. The history of American education shows that in this country we have relied principally upon the creation of public sentiment, and the voluntary response of the people, for educational progress. We have probably overworked this policy in the development of public education. If our schools are to assimilate successfully the foreign element of our population, and lift the masses out of their ignorance and its resultant helplessness, we must compel attendance. Every village principal should therefore set himself fearlessly and vigorously to the task of enforcing school attendance laws. The machinery for doing so is not always adequate, to be sure, and the principal is often handicapped by dependence upon officers who are themselves elected by the people and who will not, and cannot be compelled to, perform their duty. Radical reforms in this respect are past due in many states; but mean-

time the principal should use rigorously such powers as he has. The village policeman is usually glad, however, to act as truant officer, and his acting in this capacity will save the principal from the more or less unpleasant and often impossible work of spying out and rounding up truant offenders.

B. CURRICULUM

If the school is to be adjusted to the needs of the child there must be a properly constructed course of study. Retardation, elimination, and maladjustment to the demands of life are the three sorts of injury that an improper curriculum inflicts upon the pupil.

Retardation. — The curriculum causes retardation if it is not suited to the capacities and interests of the children. The majority of children are concrete and motor minded. They are educated by seeing, handling, and doing. But the traditional course of study, based largely on the disciplinary theory, does not appeal to them. Formal arithmetic and grammar, reading for practice and not for content, motiveless composition, book geography and history, dead language and abstract mathematics, are not food for their type of mind. Consequently they fall behind their classes. One of the first things a principal should do in a new place is to make up his tables of age and grade distribution (see Figs. 28, 29 and 30, Chapter XV); and, if they reveal retardation, inquire into the causes. The course of study may prove to be the difficulty.

Elimination Because of a Poor Curriculum. — Retardation, of course, leads to elimination. It may also arise, independent of retardation, from a course of study that neither pupils nor parents consider practical and useful. Most patrons are

reticent about criticizing the school, especially to the principal. Their schooling was meager in most cases, and schools have changed out of all semblance of what they were accustomed to in youth. They fear themselves to be ignorant and out of date. Consequently they hesitate to express their dissatisfaction with what the school offers. About all the principal hears are expressions of pride in the new physical development of the schools. But if any complacent pedagogue fancies that the people are satisfied with what the schools are giving their children, he needs a rude awakening; and there is no better way to administer such a shock to himself than to go through the periodical literature of the past five or ten years, searching out and reading the popular articles on education. It will convince him that we are on the eve of a revolution. The people want something different, and rest assured they will get it, too. What the people know that they want, especially in secondary education, is industrial training; and there is every sociological reason for furnishing it. Manual training, domestic science, and agriculture are long steps in that direction. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 is another long step, almost a revolutionary move, in the same direction. But there are other things which the schools should offer that are just as important as industrial training, though not so clearly demanded by the public. Among these are physical education, moral training, education in the fine arts, and a better preparation for citizenship. When these changes come the attendance curve will not pitch down so precipitously at the end of the compulsory attendance age.

It should be remarked, however, that the average youngster is liable to be far more dissatisfied with the course of study than the situation warrants. It is designed to prepare him for

participation in the complex modern civilization for which he is a potential candidate. But he has no such conception of its aim as that. Neither has his teacher as a rule, sad to say. There can be no better expenditure of energy on the part of a really educated principal than to explain to his older pupils the values, undreamed of by them, of the subjects they are studying. Let the principal beware, however, of the temptation to explain a value into everything whether or not there is really any there. As a matter of fact some subjects have little or no value and should be discarded.

A New Age Needs a New Curriculum. — But even those who pursue a faulty course to the end without losing step are sure to feel afterwards that much of their time was wasted. How often we hear mature persons comment, sometimes jocosely, sometimes bitterly, on the futility of much of what they studied in school. How obviously useless is much of what is taught still; and how much that is of utmost importance is still ignored!

Both the history and the theory of education show that there is a causal relation between the course of study and the society or civilization in which it is used. Thus Spartan education was entirely military, because Spartan civilization was military. Athenian education was æsthetic, cultural, and individualistic to correspond with her civilization. Similar illustrations could, of course, be selected from all epochs of history. Likewise, when a civilization changes there must occur a corresponding change in the contents of education. And when has there ever been a profounder change in civilization than has occurred in the last century, and is still occurring? As was pointed out in Chapter I, historians of civilization designate the present as a new era, due to the entirely

revolutionary changes that have occurred in science, industry, and government. And nowhere is that change being felt more forcibly than in the rural sections of America, where the western limit of new land turns the wave of emigration back to force intensive farming on the older areas. In response to the demands of a new civilization many changes have occurred in the curriculum during the last generation. Democracy is blindly groping its way about in the world's treasure house of culture for the material of a curriculum adequate to its needs. The scientific movement has forced many new subjects into the course of study. Partly through the influence of Herbart, history and literature have a larger place in the elementary school. More recently the need of all the people for industrial education on the one hand and artistic resources on the other is being met in the schools. As a result the elementary course has been vastly enriched beyond the three R's of our grandfathers; and the secondary course of to-day is quite like the college courses of a century ago.

And the end is by no means yet. There will probably be more changes in the next twenty-five years than there have been in the past fifty. New subjects will still be added, and those recently added will be vastly extended. The greatest change will probably be in industrial education, of which the Smith-Hughes Act marks the beginning, though it is to be hoped that the arts will maintain a growth in the curriculum commensurate with their relative importance. But a change more significant than mere additions and subtractions will occur. The struggle between blind tradition and almost equally blind innovation will give place to a rationalized adjustment on the basis of social and psychic needs. Education will become self-conscious, discover its aims and ideals,

and scientifically adapt the means thereto. This will come about through the leadership of educators of philosophic and prophetic insight, and through an intelligent following by superintendents, principals, and teachers who understand and appreciate that leadership.

The Young Educator's Opportunity. — No young educator need ask a greater professional opportunity, therefore, than to make a course of study for a village school, for, as Emerson is reputed to have said: "If a man preach a better sermon, write a better book, or make a better mouse trap than his neighbor, though he build his house in the forest, the world will make a beaten path to his door."

But let him be assured that tampering with the course of study is no trivial matter. He will do well to be wary of his own whims and hobbies; they are liable to prove purely personal and of no social validity. Of a hundred such ventures but few are likely to prove valuable; the rest may harm the children on whom the experiment is tried. Nor should the principal take too seriously the fads that sometimes originate in high places. One should understand that the problem of the curriculum calls for the profoundest insight into psychology, sociology, and history; and is a subject to which long, liberal, and discriminating study may well be devoted. The young principal should aspire ultimately to philosophic and practical mastery of the problem; and meantime he may seek to adapt his school to the needs of the children by making such changes from time to time as he feels very sure of, after comparing his own ideas with those of educational leaders. He will also find that there is no more profitable and educative topic for discussion in his teachers' meetings than changes in the curriculum, especially if he is able to guide his teachers to

a study of the really valuable literature of the subject. Nothing will more surely reveal which are the thinking, plastic, professionally minded members of his staff.

Drafting the New Course of Study. — For the actual work of revising the course of study the following suggestions may be offered. The first thing is to understand exactly what is required by the state authorities. This may be ascertained from literature that will be furnished by the state department. This once thoroughly mastered, the principal knows what is left to his own initiative. Next he will devote his spare time to the study of the problem. For material on the subject he should search the proceedings of the great educational organizations, the professional periodicals, the reports of experiments and investigations now being carried on by the great universities and the great foundations, the bulletins and reports of the Department of Education, and especially the books on educational theory, by no means neglecting those that are written from the sociological standpoint. Especially should he study certain published curriculums that have now come to be recognized as standard. Several such are mentioned in the references at the end of this chapter. He will do well also to set his teachers to studying along the same lines. Teachers' meetings may be devoted to the discussion of the problem, preferably some of its more definite and concrete phases. Each teacher should be encouraged to make her own contribution.

After more or less of this preliminary preparation the principal may write the outline of his new course of study.¹ This he may present to his teachers in faculty meeting, explaining to them the aims and purposes he has in mind, and

¹ Cf. Wallace, *Proc. N. Dak. Edn'l Assn.* 1908, p. 172.

the general features of his plan. Alterations may result from the discussions that should be encouraged. Each teacher should be given a copy of this outline, with instructions to be prepared to fill in the details for her own grades. Before she submits her report it will be well for the principal to talk the problem over with her pretty thoroughly. It is advisable, moreover, to begin with the primary teacher, in order to get a practical course of study that classes can follow from the first grade to the twelfth. Inexperienced principals are liable to write too much into their course of study. It is better to have a course of study that can be taught than one that can have no existence except on paper. By this procedure the principal can avail himself of the actual experience of his teachers, for no one person can make a course of study; it must combine the point of view of the philosopher of education, who has a bird's-eye view of the whole field, with that of the teachers, who know schoolroom problems in detail.

Finally, when his course of study is at last completed and put into operation, the principal must beware of resting on his oars. For in such times as ours curriculums never stay finished. In fact, the real curriculum, like all things else, never is but always is becoming. The course of study is not drawn up with the idea of depriving the teacher of her freedom and originality, nor is it to be applied too rigidly. It should serve, however, as chart and log book, making possible steady and unbroken progress. As such it is of vital importance that the teacher understand the nature, aims, and value of the course of study, and that she apply it with wisdom in her daily work. With the young teacher it may be advisable for the principal to draw up a systematic plan for daily work and see to it that the work is followed as outlined. Later this

may give way to weekly plans, and then to monthly. Principals will sometimes find it advantageous to have certain teachers make monthly progress reports, which can be checked with the course of study, and which thus insure the proper and judicious application of the course. There is considerable danger, however, of carrying this to extremes and of making teachers mere slaves of a machine.

In the small school, with limited numbers of pupils and teachers, much alternation between different subjects in different years must be resorted to. This method will permit an enriched course of study without shortening the time to be devoted to each subject.

C. ORGANIZATION

To fit the school to the needs of the child several changes in school organization are now being tried out. One is modified plans for promotion. Another is the effort to arrange school work as group projects. The third is the junior high school.

The first of these has already been sufficiently discussed.

Motivation. — The second is an attempt to secure better motivation. It is really based on the Froebelian theories of motor expression and social participation, especially as they have been elaborated in recent years by John Dewey. In a nutshell these theories are: first, that children learn best if they are actively engaged in some project containing a problem of real interest to themselves; secondly, that group activities and teamwork are necessary in the educative process, for otherwise motives are lacking, and results are unsatisfactory both psychologically and socially. An example of this kind of motivation is to be found in a group of boys working together in manual training on a piece of furniture or

apparatus needed for some phase of school activity. Obviously such a project would not fit into the old-fashioned school where no work was tolerated except what could be done at the seats, recitation benches, or blackboards. The school has had to be reorganized in part at least to make room for such work. Manual training rooms and equipment have had to be furnished, and the opportunity has been afforded for free movement and conversation.

There are those who now contend that practically all school work ought to be arranged and organized in some such way as this. They claim that such the schools of the future will be. And there is undoubtedly a stiff spine of validity in their contentions. Certainly no progressive principal can afford to ignore them. But such a fundamental reorganization of school work can — and no doubt fortunately — be worked out only gradually. Assuming sufficient ingenuity on the part of principal and teachers, the prejudices of the community will have to be overcome and the funds necessary for equipment and teaching force supplied. The only suggestion along this line that seems practical here is that the principal read such books as “*The Schools of To-morrow*” by Dewey, “*The Brown Mouse*,” a novel, by Herbert Quick, together with books and magazine articles on motivation by the Wilsons and others; and then put into practice in his school such of their suggestions as he thinks he can make a success of. To tell what to do and how to do it is out of the question, because in these matters each principal must be a pioneer.

The Junior High School. — The junior high school, or the six-three-three plan, is designed primarily to meet the needs of early adolescence. The pupils of the seventh and eighth grades are young adolescents, but the old eight-four arrange-

ment did not provide for treating them as such. The six-three-three-plan does. Furthermore, the new arrangement is an improvement, since the ninth grade usually carries the pupil beyond the compulsory attendance age, and by making the ninth grade part of an uncompleted unit, instead of the beginning of a new unit, the pupil is likely to remain in school long enough to finish it. Ultimately the age limit is likely to be advanced to correspond. Besides, by giving the pupil a taste in the eighth and ninth grades of real secondary work, he is more likely to go on to the end of the twelfth grade.

To adjust the school program better to the needs of early adolescents, the junior high school provides for departmental teaching, promotion by subjects, limited electives, the earlier introduction of secondary material, prevocational training, and more of the social participation type of class organization.

About the only objection urged against this type of reorganization seems to have been that it might lend excuse for premature vocational training, thus interfering with the more liberal education so essential to American citizenship. But the whole trend of educational theory is against such a dangerous tendency, so that the objection is waived, and the junior high school seems to be the coming thing. It certainly has many cogent reasons in its favor. Not the least of these is that it will lead to economy of time in education, not by shortening the periods of elementary and secondary education, but by crowding the elementary subject matter into the first six years, and by filling the last six with really valuable material, of which there certainly is a plenty.

It behooves the village principal, therefore, to inform himself about the junior high school, — its aims, organization, methods, and course of study. The best single book on this

subject at the present moment is The Fifteenth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part III, The Junior High School, by A. A. Douglas, published by the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois. The best bibliography of the subject to date is in the *Elementary School Journal* for March,¹ 1917, p. 256. This is published by the University of Chicago.

The need of more room to house the school will often furnish a favorable opportunity to organize a junior high school, inasmuch as the old high school building can be utilized for the purpose. A new building for three grades may not seem such a formidable undertaking. Certainly a new school building should not be constructed without making provision for a junior high school.

Pending the organization of a real junior high school, departmental teaching and some of the other characteristic features might be introduced into the seventh and eighth grades.

REFERENCES

BACKMAN, FRANK P. *Problems of Elementary School Administration.*

Discusses the relation of attendance to retardation.

BOBBETT, J. F. *The Curriculum.*

The most penetrating discussion of socialized education.

BONSER, F. G. (and Staff). *The Speyer School Curriculum.*

A thoroughly tested curriculum of recognized merit. Adapted especially to the city situation. Address Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, New York City. Price, 60 cents.

CUBBERLEY, E. P. *Public School Administration.*

Chapter XVII treats of the course of study and the superintendent's responsibility for the same.

DEWEY, JOHN AND EVELYN. *Schools of To-morrow.*

A description of schools that exemplify the Dewey philosophy. In such schools the curriculums are significantly modified.

DOUGLAS, A. A. *The Junior High School*.

Part III of the Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

The most comprehensive treatise so far (1917) on the junior high school.

FLEXNER, ABRAHAM. *A Modern School*.

Published by the General Education Board. In it is proposed and described the experiment which received so much comment in the periodicals of 1916 and 1917. Attacks the traditional curriculum.

GELDERMEISTER, FRED A. *Minnesota Course of Study and Manual for Teachers*.

A standard curriculum. Address State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minn. Price, 60 cents.

INGLIS, ALEXANDER. *Principles of Secondary Education*.

"A systematic analysis of the factors and principles involved in a constructive theory of secondary education." Contains curriculum suggestions, especially for the junior high school.

JUDD, CHARLES H. *Recent Articles and Books on the Junior High School*. Elementary School Journal, May, 1917, p. 674 ff.

The best bibliography extant. Each book or article is ably reviewed.

KINGSLEY, C. L. (and others). *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 39, 1918.

The most discussed recent publication on the subject of secondary education.

QUICK, HERBERT. *The Brown Mouse*.

A novel. Very stimulating for a rural teacher. Suggests changes in curriculum and method.

CHAPTER X

THE HEALTH OF THE SCHOOL CHILD

The New Attitude toward Physical Well-being. — A revolution is occurring in our attitude toward the physical basis of education. There are no doubt several reasons for this. One is the fading of the old dualistic philosophy which set physical and spiritual over against each other to the superstitious neglect of the physical. Another is the growth of science, especially the various branches of biological science, which has emphasized the psychophysical unity of the human organism, and has made it evident that a normal physical life is necessary to mental achievement. Finally, health surveys of various sorts, especially physical examinations for the army, have revealed the wide prevalence of physical defects which interfere seriously with school work and with the future development and usefulness of the young citizen. Conserving the physical resources of the rising generation becomes, therefore, a very important item in our national policy, for we have no more valuable resources to conserve. The changed attitude toward the physical will result (1) in increased motor expression or self-activity in the school program; (2) in additional attention to physical education; (3) in school feeding; and (4) in health work in schools.

The Extent of Physical Defects. The extent of physical defects is quite surprising. It is stated on good authority

that fully two thirds of the children in our public schools need expert medical attention of some sort. The ordinary principal will no doubt feel that his school is an exception, but a careful, scientific health survey would probably reveal what Dr. Hoag found in sixteen Minnesota villages: that 28 per cent had frequent toothache, 25 per cent frequent headache, 13 per cent frequent earache, 22 per cent blurred vision, 4 per cent discharging ears, 15 per cent frequent sore throat, 6 per cent diseased tonsils, and 6 per cent adenoids. And this survey does not specify malnutrition, defective teeth, tuberculosis, defective hearing, nor spinal curvature, not to mention the contagious diseases that scourge our schools every year. Some of these troubles the school itself causes, or at least aggravates, as nervous disorders, defects of vision and posture, and the various contagious diseases. For these reasons health work in the schools is spreading rapidly in all civilized countries, and no principal can afford to ignore the movement.

Socialization of the Medical Profession. — One hundred fifty years ago, outside of New England, education was left almost entirely to the family. As democracy developed it became evident that that plan was inadequate. The general civic welfare was seen to require the education of all. Hence universal education at public expense grew up pretty generally in this country during the half century following the Revolutionary War. We are beginning to make the same change in health conservation. There are three reasons why parents neglect the medical care of their children: ignorance, poverty, and inertia. But the state cannot safely permit its children to be neglected. The development of health work in schools is only in its beginning, and is a part of a larger movement,

viz., the socialization of the medical profession, a reform which sociologists ¹ contend is long past due. The exploitation of medical science on a commercial basis is a serious handicap to civilization. Hospitals and clinics should be public institutions, just as schools are, and doctors and dentists employees of the state, just as teachers are. It would be well for the rising generation to be biased in the schools in favor of this reform.

Organization of Health Work. — It is probable that the not distant future will see a system somewhat as follows: In the first place there will be a state educational department of health to have general supervision of health work in schools. Cities of considerable size will have health departments under jurisdiction of the school board and the superintendent. This department will maintain school clinics, both medical and dental. There are many children who need regular daily treatment, as, for example, in a case of discharging ears. When there is a doctor's office at the schoolhouse, where children can be treated free of charge, and without the trouble of a trip to a doctor's office down town, these cases can be adequately taken care of. The health department will also require the services of competent nurses, especially in schools where the free clinic is not yet established. A well-trained nurse can supervise the health work of a school almost as well as a doctor; she will be able to discover nearly all the defects from which children suffer; she can give daily attention to anæmic, crippled, or tuberculous children, advising both them and their parents as to their proper care. She can also render valuable assistance to the teacher in the

¹ See Hayes' *Introduction to the Study of Sociology*, Index: "Medical science" and "Health."

hygienic care of her class and classroom, and in the teaching of hygiene. But perhaps the most important service of the nurse is her follow-up work. A written notice to parents specifying the sort of treatment their children need seldom gets results; but when the school nurse visits the home and has a tactful, sympathetic interview with the fond but ignorant mother the needed treatment is secured in four or five times as many cases. Another function of the school nurse is to educate mothers in the dietary, sleeping, and ventilation habits of her housekeeping.

The organization of health work in the country will always present more difficulty of administration than in a city because population is scattered. But the county unit, discussed in a former chapter, will greatly facilitate health work in rural schools. With a school health department for the county, organized under the control of the county board, and a sufficient staff of nurses, assisted by local doctors on part time, the work can be made adequate to the needs of children in small villages and rural townships. Some counties already employ a school nurse with very gratifying results.

Making the Best of Meager Resources. — The village principal's problem, of course, is to make shift in the matter of health work as best he can with the facilities at his disposal at the present stage of our development. Several states make some provision by law for medical inspection of schools. In North Dakota, for instance, this work is the duty of the county health officer. The principal should study the school law of the state he is working in, find out what services the school is entitled to, and make use of them. In some places the local doctors can be induced to inspect children gratis once or twice a year. We refer, of course,

to states where no legal provision is made for this work. In other places it will be found necessary to pay a small stipend, ranging from \$100 to \$500 per year, for this work. But through the initiative of the state law or the local school board or the generosity of the physicians, medical inspection ought to be secured. Dentists are usually willing to inspect the children's teeth gratis for the sake of the business it is likely to bring them. In the case of medical or dental inspection, the notification card that is sent to the parents will not be sufficient. It will devolve upon the teachers to do the follow-up work, for, as has been stated, this cannot be neglected; if it is the pupils will in a great majority of cases fail to receive the attention they need. In counties where a county nurse is employed her services can be utilized for the inspection of the children of the village, and for some of the follow-up work. The average county is too large, however, to permit one nurse to make any adequate inspection of all school children. It ought to be possible for two or three villages conveniently located to combine in employing a school nurse. This would be a good move in the right direction.

In places where it is impossible for the principal to secure any expert assistance a health survey can be made by the teachers themselves, by the aid of the children, that will be far better than nothing. Such a survey will result in discovering a large percentage of physical defects, and in the treatment of some of them; and will serve to prepare the minds of teachers, pupils, and patrons for something more adequate. For this purpose the following question list is offered; it will guide the teacher in making the sort of survey suggested.

TEACHERS' HEALTH SURVEY

Pupil's Name..... Date

A. Eye Defects?.....

B. Ear Defects?.....

C. Nose and Throat Trouble?....

D. Bad Teeth?.....

E. Growth Defects?.....

F. Malnutrition?.....

G. Nervousness?

H. Communicable Diseases (*e.g.* ringworm, lice, itch, impetigo, tuberculosis)?

The results of this survey should be recorded on the cards that are provided for the purpose (see Figures 18 and 19, Chapter XV), the parents notified, and the records filed. The follow-up work necessary to treatment should be done by the teachers as far as their time and energy will permit — the long-suffering teachers!

Symptoms of Common Diseases. — The more the teachers know about the symptoms of common defects and diseases, the better. The most progressive normal schools are now training their graduates in this work, and the principal will do well to call the attention of his teachers to this study. The teacher should train herself to detect significant symptoms in her pupils. The following summary of symptoms, compiled principally from Terman's "The Hygiene of the School Child" (in some cases verbatim) will be found useful as a manual, especially in making the health survey suggested above.

The Snellen cards can be bought of almost any book dealer for a few cents. Directions go with them, and they are not difficult to use. Every teacher should have a set. Each

eye should be tested separately. The Allport charts, designed especially for the use of teachers and nurses, can be had from F. A. Hardy and Company, Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Ill. They have some advantages over the Snellen cards.

The following are some common symptoms of eye defects: crossed eyes, peculiar head postures, frowning, holding book near eyes, difficulty of reading work on blackboard, red or sore eyes, headache (a common symptom), fatigue, sensitiveness to light, nervousness, poor spelling or reading, blurred or double vision, scars on cornea, and seeing colors or movements of letters or lines.

Defective hearing may be suspected from the following indications: pupil says "what?" or assumes peculiar postures in the attempt to hear, or is inattentive, stupid, or expressionless; articulates, spells, or reads inaccurately; complains of earache, or has discharging ears (often hardly noticeable), or nasal breathing.

Terman enumerates the following symptoms of adenoids: Open mouth and snoring at night, nasal voice, mouth breathing, dull expression and mental apathy, high arched palate, and prominent upper teeth. Other throat symptoms are: sore throat, tonsillitis, offensive breath, and rheumatism.

If a child has toothache, or defective teeth that the teacher can easily see, or admits that he has not been to a dentist for a year, he should be induced to have his teeth looked over by a dentist.

Curvature of the spine is indicated by round back or shoulders, projection on back, wing shoulder blades and flat chest, protruding abdomen, unequal height of shoulders or hips. Flat foot is indicated by turned ankle, shoe heel worn

on inner side, toes turned out, stiff gait, and barefoot track that shows the whole footprint.

Symptoms of malnutrition are pallid skin, soft, flabby flesh, slouchy posture, puffiness under eyes, listlessness, freaky appetite, nervousness, low mentality or physical endurance, and shortness of breath. Terman quotes the following as the Oppenheim formula for determining malnutrition:

$$\frac{\text{girth of arm} \times 100}{\text{chest girth}} = 30$$

The girth of arm is halfway between elbow and shoulder with arm extended; the girth of chest is the average between expiration and inspiration. If the quotient is less than thirty, the child is probably a victim of malnutrition. Malnutrition is as often due to ignorance as to poverty. Many children will be found upon inquiry to have very inadequate breakfasts, often coffee and bread, or possibly only coffee, with no proteids and no fruits. When for any reason such a breakfast is followed by a cold dinner, the case is worse. Such conditions should be corrected if possible by the noon lunch, by instruction of children, and by bringing influence to bear upon homes.

The following are symptoms of nervousness: ¹ ill-controlled temper, abnormal emotions, poor muscular coördination, spasmodic movements, nail-biting, stammering, peculiar traits of disposition, bad sexual habits, headache, and micturition.

One of the most serious health problems connected with school administration is the contagious diseases of children. The school is liable to spread these diseases, so that the consequent death rate is a direct result of school herding.

¹ Hoag and Terman, "Health Work in Schools," p. 70.

have been exposed, and until all danger of infection is past. The accompanying tables will serve as a guide in the detection of infectious diseases, and in the prevention of contagion.

Chicken pox	Isolate patient from time of earliest symptoms till scabs disappear.
Diphtheria	Isolate all carriers, whether sick or well, till examination proves them safe.
Eye troubles	Children with inflamed and sensitive eyes should be sent to physician for diagnosis at once, as some of these disorders are serious, and all require early attention.
Itch	Early treatment. Isolate till cured. Have all clothing that has touched the body boiled.
La Grippe	Teach patient proper care in sneezing, coughing, nasal discharges, etc.
Measles	Exclude for 14 days the patient and all who have not had disease.
Meningitis	Diagnose promptly and give Flexner's serum.
Mumps	Isolate patients till recovered, exposed persons for two weeks beginning a week after exposure.
Scarlet Fever	Isolate patient till after peeling, and inflammation and discharge of throat, nose, and ears.
Smallpox	Require vaccination of all.
Whooping Cough	Isolate patients till whooping disappears, suspicious colds for two weeks.

TO PREVENT SPREAD OF DISEASE.

Responsibility for Home Conditions. — Reference has already been made to the responsibility of the school relative to the dietary habits of the children. It has similar responsibilities in matters of sleep, ventilation, clothing, etc. This will be accomplished in part through the teaching of hygiene. In fact one of the most important effects of health work in

schools is the change it is destined to make in the teaching of hygiene, rendering it more concrete and practical. Instruction in the lower grades will be adapted to the social and intellectual development of the child. More attention will be devoted to forming the habits upon which health preservation is based. In the upper grades practical instruction in bacteriology will be given, and hygiene will be taught by means of health surveys of the children themselves and sanitary surveys of homes, meat markets, bakeries, schools, dairies, etc., in which children and even parents will participate. These surveys will reveal to the teachers the precise form of ignorance from which children are suffering. Sex instruction will be rationalized and systematized. In high schools girls will be taught the fundamentals of home nursing in preparation for the duties of motherhood. All this instruction, moreover, will be rendered concrete and practical by correlation with the medical inspection going on in schools.

The Schoolhouse and Housekeeping. - One of the most important aspects of health work in school is the application of sanitary and hygienic principles to school housekeeping. This is so important that a whole chapter (XIV) has been devoted to it.

When a new schoolhouse is to be built very special pains should be taken to make it conform to the requirements of hygiene. This includes such matters as heating, lighting, ventilation, water supply, sanitation, and surroundings. In order to insure proper attention to all these considerations the principal should improve the opportunity to inform himself thoroughly on all these matters, and should induce the board members, and especially the building committee,

to do the same. The importance of employing a competent and honest architect should be explained. Do not let the school board try to economize on a cheap, unprofessional architect, since the contractor, rather than the taxpayers, will be likely to profit by such parsimony. The equipment of the school is as important as any one feature of its construction, as any principal will discover who studies into the matter. The state law should be, and in most states is, a help to the principal in securing the facilities needed.

Mental Hygiene. The professionally minded principal should adequately understand and appreciate the importance of mental hygiene as it applies to the school program and the educative process. The new Freudian standpoint in psychology has brought this subject to the fore in recent years. We now know that psychic normality and mental efficiency of adult persons largely result from conditions in childhood that are subject to control. Interest and happiness are not only essential to learning, but also to the normal development of the mind. Fatigue, discouragement, humiliation, consciousness of success, objective interests, and normal associations are as significant factors in the child's education as the subjects he studies. Such considerations as these underlie program construction, recitation methods, discipline, students' activities, and all other school processes. Mental hygiene is one of the coming subjects in pedagogy.

The Best Books. — A chapter of this kind in such a book as this must of necessity be brief and merely outline in character. To cover the subject with anything like adequacy would require a book at least as large as this. The reader is therefore referred to the Selected References. Special mention may be made here, however, of three books with

which every principal should be familiar. These three books are Terman's *The Hygiene of the School Child* (1914), Hoag and Terman's *Health Work in the Schools* (1914), and Dresslar's *School Hygiene* (1913). The first of these confines itself rather closely, as the title indicates, to personal hygiene. On this phase of the subject it is quite thorough. It has very little to say, however, about the construction and care of the school plant. Dresslar's book goes into the details of that, although it does not omit the other phases of school hygiene. The principal needs Dresslar's book for the instruction it gives as to the care of the plant, but he has a very special need for it if a new plant is to be built. The book by Hoag and Terman deals almost entirely with medical inspection in its various phases. It says little or nothing about the school plant, and is not a treatise on personal hygiene. It is the book for the principal who wishes to do something progressive along the line of special health work in his school. The three books, therefore, supplement one another, and all three of them are indispensable. The principal who masters their contents may consider himself fairly well informed, for the present at least. A new book by Ayres and others has just appeared; it is characterized below.

REFERENCES

AYRES, WILLIAMS, and WOOD. *Healthful Schools: How to Build and Maintain Them* (1918).

This book is more recent than those mentioned in the text; it corresponds to Dresslar's book, but contains more of the material of the other two. It is perhaps the best single book on the subject now available.

BANCROFT, JESSIE H. *The Posture of School Children*.

A standard work on posture.

BRYANT, LOUISE S. *School Feeding* (1913).

A description of history and practice at home and abroad. The best book on the subject.

BURNHAM, W. H. In Monroe's *Encyclopedia of Education*, articles on "Myopia," "Hyperopia," "Astigmatism," "Hygiene of the Eye," and "Hygiene of the Ear." In *Pedagogical Seminary*, articles on various phases of school hygiene: see 1904, p. 488; 1906, p. 293; 1908, p. 155; 1910, p. 525; 1912, p. 395.

CURTIS, H. S. *Play and Recreation for the Open Country*.

A useful book for teachers in small towns.

DRESSLAR, F. B. *School Hygiene*.

One of the three books on school hygiene that every principal must own. The best book extant on the hygienic construction and care of the school plant.

HOAG, DR. E. B., and Terman, L. M. *Health Work in the Schools*.

This is one of the three books on school hygiene that the principal must own. It devotes special attention to medical inspection, and school clinics.

LAY, WILFRED. *The Unconscious Conflict*.

This is the best book for the layman on mental hygiene. It analyzes mental conflicts from the Freudian standpoint, and tells how to detect and correct them.

MCCURDY, J. T. (editor). *The American Physical Education Review*.

An excellent periodical. Published at Springfield, Mass., for \$3.00.

TERMAN, LEWIS M. *The Hygiene of the School Child*.

One of the three books on school hygiene that every principal must own. The most comprehensive of the three.

CHAPTER XI

PLAY AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The New Philosophy of Play. — Dr. G. Stanley Hall says that each of the great genius-bearing, progress-making epochs in human history has been preceded by a renaissance of physical training. There are numerous indications that we are on the eve of a great awakening in this very matter. And certainly we need it! The old rural conditions, in which young and old found plenty of physical activity in the course of the day's work and play, are gone. Children are shut up in school-houses a much larger proportion of their time than in the old days. Terms are longer, lessons are to be learned at home, often school work is supplemented with music lessons, many children have work to do outside of school hours, often from bitter necessity. As a consequence the daily and weekly schedules of innumerable boys and girls, even in the villages, contain very little time for play.

Now play is the child's birthright. There is no more justice in robbing him of the joy of play than there is in withholding political rights or a living wage from an adult. And the civilization that does so will eventually suffer as surely from one as from the other. Moreover the child needs play, especially play involving free physical activity, for his normal growth and development. This need is the school's responsibility and opportunity. The playground is the real schoolroom; here, if the educator knows his business, will

occur the best development of body, mind, and manners, and the best training for the social life of maturity. The school program that omits daily physical exercise is a criminal absurdity. The villages and cities of this country are full of boys in early adolescence who get no physical exercise from the beginning to the end of the week, especially in the winter months, except walking to and from school. The evil consequences, physical, mental, and even moral can be appreciated by none so clearly as by the alert, observant parent, though many educators are beginning to get their eyes open. Nothing is tending to awaken the public so much, however, as the examinations for army service and the discussion of military training. Both point to the great need of physical education in our public schools.

Physical exercise, especially of the play variety, pays expenses by the relief it affords in the matter of discipline. Visit the schools of a city where some of the principals pay conspicuous attention to playground activities, while others as conspicuously neglect them. At the one you will see a dozen or twenty games going on at the same time during intermissions, and the disciplinary problem negligible. At the other you will see groups of boys just standing around, and the discipline correspondingly difficult. Besides, the relaxation makes studies easier.

Physical development is requisite to mental and moral development. Hall contends that the muscles are almost as much the organs of the mind as is the brain. Muscular control is necessary to moral control. The Greeks demonstrated that physical exercise is a means of moral training. St. Paul was wrong: as a matter of fact bodily exercise is profitable unto godliness. There is no better place to train

a boy in the control of his emotions than on the playground; and this sort of training is fully as important as the kind children get out of their arithmetics and reading books. If social efficiency, not mere knowledge, is the aim of education, the principal will have to take the playground quite as seriously as the schoolroom.

Social Participation. — But perhaps the most important value of play is in teaching children to mingle with their own kind, to do team work, and to observe the rules of the game. It is well known that the secret of success in many lines of work is to be “a good mixer.” Certainly it is one of the secrets of happiness. But the child who always plays alone is not likely to develop social qualities. Conversely, it will often be found that the hermit-minded adult lacked opportunities for group play in childhood and youth. Moreover, social and industrial activities consist largely of coöperative enterprises. Individualistic tasks are almost a thing of the past. Life is teamwork, and the best place to learn teamwork is in the games of youth. Uncoöperative adults will often be found to have missed this kind of sport when they were boys. The rules of the game are good for the boy. Whether competition in business is a good thing or a bad thing for society depends upon the rules of the game. “Knuckle down, shoot hard, don’t fudge” is a rule of business as well as of marbles. The business man who will not obey the rules of the game is a pirate, and ought to go to jail. But the best way to learn fair play is to learn to play fair. This is an important item in the philosophy of playground management.

Playground Equipment. — The playground must be equipped with reference to the needs of the various age and

sex groups. For the little folks there should be seesaws, swings, low slides, etc. For the fourth to seventh grades there should be large slides, teeters, ladders, rings, and giant strides. These are dangerous for the little folks unless very carefully supervised. For adolescent boys there must be ample provision for the competitive games that they enjoy. The various kinds of ball games are the most popular: baseball, football, basket ball, volley ball, etc. For adolescent girls much use is nowadays being made of rhythmical work, such as folk dances of all kinds. Hand work also is used, as basket making, raffia, etc. Some of the less violent games of ball are also quite popular with girls of this age. There is no reason except custom why adolescent girls should not appear on the playground in bloomers. Recess periods, it is true, are inconveniently short, but there is also no reason except custom why the traditional program, with two short recesses, should not be thrown on the scrap heap, and adequate provision made instead for a playground period that amounts to something.

The investment necessary for playground equipment is not so formidable as it sounds. There are a great many games for which no equipment at all is necessary, the old-fashioned game of pull-away, for instance. Ball games can be financed with a dollar. Swings and teeter boards may be provided at very small expense. Some of the best equipment may be made by the boys of the manual training department out of piping or old boiler flues. Sand boxes and slides make fine problems in construction. Care should be taken, however, to make these pieces of apparatus strong and safe in every respect for the children. The better they are built the less care and supervision they will need.

All this implies a rather roomy playground. In villages where land is cheap there is no excuse for cramped, cluttered-up playgrounds. If the school yard is too small, the board should acquire temporarily, if not by purchase, some vacant lots near by, preferably, of course, a whole block. If the school premises are unavoidably cramped it is advisable to arrange the apparatus around the edge of the lot. The apparatus for different ages and sexes should be grouped by itself. This will leave a relatively large space in the middle for games.

Provision should be made for winter sports if possible. Winter is the season of the year when it is most difficult to provide outside activities. But it is precisely the time of year when outdoor sports are most needed for the health and well being of both children and adults. Nothing is more conducive to vigorous living than exhilarating winter sports. For this purpose some principals bank up the snow around the edge of the playground (the summer apparatus having been removed) and flood the inclosure, thus making a skating rink. This can be used not only by the children of the school, but also by adults. At small expense it can be lighted for use during the long winter evenings.

It goes without saying that every village school needs a gymnasium. If the school is entirely destitute of this necessary equipment, a cheap shed open on the south side will, as a temporary makeshift, be found better than nothing. It will make possible outdoor exercise of limited variety on rainy days, and in all but the coldest weather.

Playground Supervision. All this equipment will be wasted unless adequate supervision is provided. Experience has repeatedly proved that children will flock to unsupervised

playgrounds for a little while, but that sooner or later the playgrounds will be deserted, and the expensive equipment left to rot and rust. The reason is obvious: without supervision the bullies dominate the situation. Might makes right and to the victor belongs the apparatus. For this reason unsupervised playgrounds are worse than useless because they develop in children exactly the traits of character that are most undesirable from the social standpoint. Those of domineering temperament, on the one hand, form the habit of domineering. The weak and timid are afraid to venture; or, if they do enter the sports, they are relegated to the servile stations in the game. Who has not observed boys playing ball? The big boys bat practically all the time, while the little fellows do the fielding. Sooner or later they get discouraged and quit. This has as bad an effect upon them as domineering has upon the bullies. It trains them to be failures and underlings. And conversely, in the supervision of play, not only should the strong and aggressive be restrained and compelled to obey the rules of the game, but the timid should be encouraged and helped. Often they will develop into the best players, whereas, if left to themselves, they would never have the chance. Such supervision the children themselves, even the bullies, are most prompt to appreciate.

And what a parable there is in this for our whole industrial régime!

The supervision of his playground is a matter, therefore, to which the principal should give the most careful and thoughtful attention. To this end he should inform himself as to the conduct of games by reading the best books suggested in the References. Some of them give detailed in-

structions for conducting children's games. He is most fortunate if he has enjoyed a real play life in his own boyhood, and has participated in athletics during his college days. On the other hand he should realize that there is a profound philosophy underlying playground practice, and that its roots penetrate deep into biology, psychology, sociology, and history.

It is as important for the board to provide a playground supervisor as it is to provide a teacher of high school mathematics. In fact, were we not blinded by tradition, we should see that it is vastly more important. Higher mathematics will prove a valuable investment of time to only a few, while play is essential to the normal growth of all. It will usually be possible to employ a young woman who will devote part of her time to music supervision and part of her time to supervision of play. Other combinations will suggest themselves to the inventive principal. Her services are likely to be inadequate, however, since they will meet the needs of only the girls and little children. A young woman can hardly supervise the play of adolescent or even pre-adolescent boys. She will be out of place in their active, competitive games. The most absurd example of such incongruity that can well be imagined is that of a pretty young girl trying to train pre-adolescent boys in military drill. The case, however, is not imaginary. If the principal depends upon a woman supervisor, the big boys will be neglected, and their needs are the most imperative of all. There should be a man on the teaching staff who can look after this phase of the work. If no one else is available the principal should look after it himself. In either case he should, as a rule, make it his business to appear on the playground during intermissions. He

should require his teachers to do the same. There are obvious reasons why teachers should mingle with children in the activities of the playgrounds. For one thing, no teacher knows a boy till she sees him at play. Besides, the teachers need the exercise themselves. This implies, of course, that the schoolhouse be emptied of children during intermissions, except in bad weather; or else that play periods be arranged so that some part of the school is on the playground all the time.

Supervisors of play must not only be trained in the conduct of games, but they must above all have a sympathetic attitude toward children. What the children profit most by is play — free, simple, spontaneous, happy play. "It ain't play unless we can do as we please," one perfectly normal youngster protested. And his protest reveals a profound psychological principle. The play supervisor whom the children do not like is out of place on the playground.

Pre-Military Training in the Schools of New York State. — The Great War, and especially our entrance into it, proved to be a most violent earthquake shock to all our thinking. Many of our most firmly fixed ideas have had to be entirely reconstructed. With respect to some matters we have undoubtedly been shocked out of balance, and shall have to return to sanity later. The cigarette question is an example. It would no doubt be out of place at this stage of the discussion to dogmatize on the matter of military training in our public schools. Whether that will long continue to be a debated issue remains to be seen. But certainly there can be no debate about the necessity for such physical education during school age as will lay a foundation of physical health, vigor, and normality. The patriotic principal will certainly

have sufficient motive, therefore, for developing the physical side of his school program.

In no state has the matter of physical training in public schools been more carefully and thoroughly worked out than in New York. In accordance with a law passed in 1916, a Military Training Commission was appointed to formulate a plan for physical training in the elementary and secondary schools of the state of New York. The commission consisted of Major General John F. O'Ryan, John H. Finley, Commissioner of Education, and George J. Fisher, M.D., a specialist in physical education. The following plan was outlined by this commission, the details being specified in their syllabus.¹

A. A daily health inspection by the regular class teacher, to be correlated with the school medical inspection. It is expected that with a little practice teachers will be able to make this health inspection in a very few minutes.

B. Setting-up drills of at least two minutes' duration at the beginning of each class period, or at least four times each school day, under the direction of the regular class teacher.

C. Talks and instruction on hygiene.

D. Supervised recreation, organized play, and athletics.

E. Gymnastic drills, under the direction of a special teacher of physical training.

The reader will observe that the suggestions for play, exercise, and medical inspection outlined in this chapter and the chapter on health (X) cover the spirit of the New York program with the exception of the setting-up drills, especially in schools where a regular teacher of physical education and

¹ See "General Plan and Syllabus for Physical Training in Elementary and Secondary Schools of the State of New York," 1917, page 24.

supervised play is employed. The principal who wishes to do systematic and adequate work in physical education will do well to take special thought for each of the five items of the New York program.

All healthy children, especially high school pupils, need a good sweaty workout every day, followed wherever possible by a bath. Except for special purposes play and athletic games are the best forms of exercise. Calisthenic exercises and setting-up drills, though rather fatiguing for children, are useful for the correction of posture and the systematic development of all the muscles. They would prove a valuable addition to any school program.

In order to assist the principal in introducing these exercises into each classroom the following description is offered of some of the setting-up exercises used at the Plattsburg Training Camp. These exercises may be given for short periods, at least two minutes, several times each day. When the weather is pleasant it is well to march out of doors and give the drills in the open. When the weather or circumstances do not favor going out of doors, flush the room with fresh air during the drill. The teacher must lead these drills in a snappy, vigorous style, enjoying them herself and making the pupils enjoy them, must believe in them as health measures, and must desire the results intended. Otherwise the best results will not be obtained. Be moderate at first, taking care not to tire the pupils. Increase the vigor gradually, but do not overdo it. Signals can be given by counting one, two; one, two. The sense of rhythm can be increased by the use of music.

The drills are :

1. Stand in good position with hands at side. At signal

spring lightly, alighting on toes, with feet ten to twenty inches apart, depending on size of pupil, and at same time extending hands, palms down, to level of shoulders. Instantly return to original position. Repeat several times.

2. Stand in good position with hands extended above head, palms forward. At signal bend forward, without bending knees, till finger tips touch floor. Instantly return to original position. Repeat several times.

3. Stand in good position with hands on hips, fingers forward, toes turned well out. At signal squat as far down as possible, rising on toes. Instantly return to original position. Repeat several times.

4. Stand in good position, elbows at sides, forearms forward at right angles, hands clenched with palms up. At signal thrust arms forward to level of shoulder, hands still clenched, palms down. Instantly return to original position. Repeat several times.

5. Stand in good position with hands together behind hips. At signal rise on toes as high as possible. Instantly return to original position. Repeat several times.

Great care must be taken to secure good posture, both in these drills and, through their aid, in all school and other activities. To aid in securing good posture habits the authors recommend a chart that can be obtained for a small sum from the American Posture League, Inc., 1 Madison Ave., New York City. The chart shows a school boy standing in three postures, two incorrect and one correct. The pictures are large enough to be seen by all if hung on the front wall of the school-room. This chart keeps the proper posture constantly before the pupils' attention, and so helps to establish the ideal.

The reader is referred to the bibliography at the close of

this chapter for a list of the most useful books for his guidance in the conduct of his playground work. Drafts, designs, and blue prints for playground plans can be secured from Fred Medart Manufacturing Company, St. Louis; Narragansett Machine Company, Providence, R. I.; and A. G. Spalding & Bros., New York, Chicago or San Francisco.

REFERENCES

ANGELL, EMMETT D. *Play.*

A good manual of classified games.

BANCROFT, JESSIE H. *Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium.*

This is the most complete compilation of classified games on the market. It contains no theory, but instructions for conducting games for elementary schools, high schools, playgrounds, boys' and girls' summer camps, and miscellaneous parties. The best single book on the subject.

CURTIS, HENRY. *Education through Play.*

The most comprehensive work on the history, theory, and extent of the playground movement.

CURTIS, HENRY. *Play and Recreation for the Open Country.*

This book has had a tremendous influence in arousing interest in the social and recreational life of rural communities.

CURTIS, HENRY S. *The Reorganized Playground.* Bulletin No. 16, 1912, United States Bureau of Education.

HETHERINGTON, CLARK W. *The Demonstration Play School of 1913*, in the American Physical Education Review for May, 1915.

A splendid essay on the theory of the playground. Advocates the reorganization of education on the basis of activities rather than subjects. Can be obtained as a reprint.

JOHNSON, G. E. *Education through Recreation.*

Published by the Russell Sage Foundation. Other literature may be obtained from this source. Should be in every principal's library.

LELAND, A. and L. H. *Plans and Specifications for Playground Construction and Playground Apparatus.*

PERRY, A. C. *Wider Use of the School Plant.*

A report by the Russell Sage Foundation (New York City) of practices in many cities. Contains two chapters (VI, X) on play and games.

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA. *The Playground.*

A monthly magazine of great value. Published, price \$2.00, at Madison Avenue, New York City. This association also publishes numerous leaflets on various phases of the playground movement, a list of which will be furnished upon request. Also the Proceedings of the Annual Playground Congress.

ROTH, EMIL. *Theory and Practice of Physical Education.* 3 volumes.

A handbook of exercises.

SPEERLING, HARRY. *The Playground Book.*

A manual of all sorts of games for children: singing games, folk dances, playground athletics, playground games, and classroom games. By the aid of this book an untrained supervisor could make shift fairly well.

STECHER, WILLIAM A. *Handbook of Graded Lessons in Physical Training and Games*, in three parts.

CHAPTER XII

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The Necessity for Motivation. — The so-called student activities of school life are often looked upon as incidental to the real work of the school. They are often tolerated by the teachers to keep pupils interested in school life and to help them to work off their surplus energy, and so obviate some of the problems of discipline. Administrators who take this superficial view of the matter prefer as few student activities as possible, and teachers not infrequently discourage debating and orchestras, frankly affirming that they make too much work. Seldom do school boards increase the teaching force with the idea of providing enough teacher time to take care of these interests.

Principals who take this view of the matter reveal a sad lack of insight, and are pretty sure to run unprogressive, uninteresting schools. Especially will the high school suffer at the hands of such a teacher. Elementary work can be motivated in other ways; college students are supposed to appreciate the value of the curriculum subjects, but high school pupils are between hay and grass. As a rule they are too young to have any very definite purpose in life, and too inexperienced to see the value of the subjects they are studying even if they had such a purpose. Hence the bane of high school work is the flippant aimlessness that pervades the atmosphere. Student

activities, intelligently chosen and wisely directed, offer the most promising solution of this problem; and happy is the village whose principal has the insight to realize this fact.

Froebel's Theories. — Some of the classic pedagogical philosophies would reveal the value and aims of these activities if the light was turned upon them. Among such philosophies there has never been expounded a profounder than that of Froebel. Froebel is usually thought of as the founder of the kindergarten, and so he was, but the kindergarten was really little more than an incidental and very partial application of his philosophy. He intended his principles to be applied throughout the entire school system. Indeed they have been increasingly applied during recent decades, with the result that the elementary school is a wholly different institution to-day from what it was two generations ago. Not only so, but Froebel's principles live again in many of the most significant reforms now being advocated. And as for student activities, especially in high school, they are, or may be made, a startling realization of the aims of Froebel's theory.

His two fundamental doctrines were self-activity or motor expression and social participation. By the first he meant that children must be given opportunity to act out their natural instinctive desires. Let them do what nature prompts them to do; in this way they will have the experience nature intends them to have and exercise the faculties nature intends them to exercise. This is nature's law of development and therefore the fundamental law of education. And since Froebel's time the growth of psychological science has accumulated a great body of evidence that the learning process depends upon self activity; that children learn most readily when they are doing what they are naturally interested in doing.

Social participation means that children must be given opportunity to satisfy their social instincts. It is natural for young people to group together, to engage in group enterprises, and to crave the help and approval of their fellows. This is a most necessary preparation for adult life. It also is requisite to the learning process. For sociological and psychological reasons, then, social participation is good pedagogy. We now have scientific proof for what Froebel discerned as an insight of genius.

The mere statement of these principles renders it obvious that they cover the case of student activities. And all this but reads a philosophy into what common sense tells us. Student activities furnish training in self-control, coöperativeness, leadership and following, initiative and responsibility. They impart knowledge of human nature, practice in business methods, and experience in the ways of the world. And for these reasons they are perhaps even more valuable than the curriculum subjects themselves. This is illustrated historically by the English Great Public Schools. Their curriculums were almost useless from a practical point of view: nothing much but Latin and mathematics. Yet these schools trained the leaders of the nation and the makers of the empire. They did it largely through the give and take of student relations. Every high school principal should study the Great Public Schools of England.

Motivation.—The motivation theory, of which school literature is now so full, also throws light on the utility of student activities. That theory demands that we interest children in school subjects by finding some vital connection between those subjects and the interests with which the children are daily surrounded. This is precisely what student

activities can accomplish. Professor Hollister, in his *High School and Class Management*, discusses this matter in an exceedingly viable manner. He points out by way of introduction how Booker T. Washington used student interest and student labor to build up an entire institution. His students learned by doing, and their doing built up the Institute. Everything taught in the institution, moreover, is closely related to the life of the student community. The same sort of thing can be done in almost any school. Music and dramatization, for instance, belong in the curriculum; but school work in these lines may be made to culminate in school or even public entertainments. In this way the school may develop resources for entertaining, not only the student body itself, but the public as well. And the planning and preparation of such public entertainments vitalize the school work. Dramatic work, for example, furnishes exercise for the English department; choruses and orchestras may be trained during general exercises; the art and manual training departments may be called upon for help. Recitals consummate daily work in music; debates give public expression to class work in history, civics, and economics. Oratory and declamation grow out of and furnish motives for class work in English; social gatherings give opportunity for the domestic science department to exhibit its work. They, or the science or manual training departments, may advertise themselves by holding "open house" for school or community. The social science department may study community life, make health or other surveys (see Chapter VI), and conduct community center or other special activities.

The department of agriculture can render a distinct service by advertising that it will test all seed corn or small grain, and

report back to the farmer on the results of the test. Some schools test milk also. Pupils in the manual training department, by inserting a notice in the local newspapers, can often find opportunity to be of service to patrons of the school by making small pieces of furniture or doing repair work. This lends interest to the pupil, enlists the coöperation of patrons in what the school is doing, and enables the pupil to make a little money to add to his savings account. The various departments of the school — music, dramatic, domestic science, manual training, and any special school organizations should not be slow to offer their assistance in carrying out any worthy public enterprise not fostered by the school itself, *i.e.* Memorial Day exercises; Clean-up Day; Good Roads Day; Arbor and Bird Day; or a Community Picnic. It is not always wise for the school to take the initiative in these matters, but it should always be gracious about offering its services.

“The extent to which the fundamental activities of life may thus be set up in the high school, closely correlated with the various subjects of study, and made to permeate the whole group of teachers and pupils, becomes readily apparent.” And Hollister might add that by this means the village high school may solve the problem of wholesome community entertainment, and lead the progress of the community along industrial, social, domestic, and moral lines. Moreover, the school that does these things will enroll a much larger percentage of the young people, and can, unless shiftlessly administered, do far better work in the curriculum subjects themselves.

While student activities are more important in high school than in the grades, nevertheless they have their place in

the grade school also. There the guidance of the teacher will be more obvious than in the high school. Regular school work may culminate in entertainments or contests. Pageants and plays are used in this way in the best schools. Some schools work up contests in declamation, essays, spelling, or map drawing. These exercises may culminate in an annual play day which takes in all the children of all the grades, and is preparatory to a county play day. The grades can also make valuable contributions to public programs put on by the school as a whole.

The Special Problem of Motivating High School Work. — The real problem in handling school activities arises, though, in the high school. It is a good plan to have a member of the faculty act as class adviser to each of the high school classes, this adviser to interest herself in all the activities of her class, attend all their class meetings, and seek to work out a plan of wholesome recreation.

The following plan has been in use in the school administered by one of the authors and has proved most satisfactory. The high school is organized into an athletic and literary society having regular meetings each Thursday morning. This society has a constitution, regular officers, and program, social, and executive committees. The constitution provides for a system of faculty supervision that does not interfere with student initiative.

During the first month of the school year the entire membership of the society is divided into two sections. Each section selects a name and a captain. This plan could be adapted to very small schools including the seventh and eighth grades. The object of the division is the carrying out of a series of athletic and literary contests covering the whole school year.

This scheme also has a tendency to forestall class rivalries, which, as every experienced high school man knows, are to be avoided if possible. Teachers are selected as members of the divisions just as the pupils are, but are prohibited from entering any of the literary contests. They may, however, be allowed to enter such athletic contests as are in the nature of group work, thus giving the teacher an excellent opportunity to meet pupils in a field quite different from the classroom. However, the teachers do not assume responsibility for the conduct of the sections. That resides with the pupils.

The contests are of two sorts, as follows :

I. LITERARY EVENTS

1. Spell Down. ¹
2. Declamatory Contest.
3. Debate.
4. Oratorical Contest.

II. ATHLETIC EVENTS

1. Volley Ball.
2. Indoor Baseball.
3. Basket Ball.
4. Tennis Tournament.

Each event carries with it a certain number of points, which are set down to the credit of the winning side. In the athletic events there are first and second boys' teams, and first and second girls' teams, so that practically everybody has an opportunity to participate.

Additional athletic events, such as football and baseball, or entirely different types of events, might readily be added

if the principal or pupils desired. Musical and dramatic contests will suggest themselves. Exhibits of the different departments would work in nicely. To each event of this sort would be given a numerical value to be credited to the winner. School projects could be counted, *e.g.* plots of corn, potatoes, onions, or other crops, pig or poultry raising, sewing or millinery work. Even social events could be counted. Each side could entertain the other under fixed rules, the quality of the entertainment being determined by impartial judges. In this way the scheme could be made to fit the varying tastes and capabilities of a large number of pupils, which is, of course, exceedingly desirable. It is of the utmost importance that there be something for all and that all take part. This scheme, moreover, furnishes a program of events running clear through the year. School life should be made happy and worth while, so that pupils will find it satisfying, not merely a dull preparation for life. Before entering any of the final contests each division has its preliminaries for the purpose of selecting their best representatives. The score is posted in some conspicuous place as the events are played off, so that the interest is never allowed to lag. When the final event is finished the total score is computed and the side winning the largest number of points is awarded the prize. For a prize the whole society purchases a silver shield, or some other suitable trophy, and agrees to make it the permanent possession of the division winning it for three successive years. Each year the winning group has its name, score, and year engraved on the shield, and the same is displayed on the walls of the high school. Selecting the groups in the manner suggested they are usually quite evenly matched and neither side has much of a chance to win the shield permanently.

Interschool Meets. — All of these intergroup contests afford an excellent opportunity to select material for teams to represent the school in whatever interschool contests are planned. However, nearly all experienced principals question, at least in their own minds, the advisability of interschool contests which call for pupils being taken from their homes. Not many have the courage of their convictions, however. The objection to interschool contests is obvious: they throw pupils under influences which, at their immature age, they are not always able to meet. Girls' basket ball teams are often up nearly all night waiting for trains, sometimes under circumstances that are extremely undesirable. Furthermore there is too much tendency at best for American children to become precocious and blasé. They are too much subjected to change and excitement. They ought to stay quietly at home far more than they do. Wise parents do not wish their young high school children hustled from town to town; it makes them too world-wise. Precocity is the bane of American childhood. For this reason interschool contests are to be discouraged, except, perhaps, for high school seniors. Principals who have the courage to take this stand will find parents approving it, especially if they explain the reasons publicly, and at the same time work up a satisfying local program.

It goes without saying that if interschool contests are indulged in, teams must be most carefully chaperoned. The moral ideals of the athletic coach are therefore of the highest importance. It is very gratifying, however, to note that pupils are just as much interested in the intergroup games and contests described above; and they certainly have a far more wholesome effect on the school than the interschool contests. Incidentally this takes care of the problem of school spirit.

Various Special Activities.— There are perhaps a few forms of student activity each of which deserves a special paragraph.

The severer sorts of athletics are to be discountenanced. The strain is detrimental to young boys. Even colleges are beginning to discourage them.

General exercises are an important part of the daily schedule. The period should frequently be utilized for the kind of programs suggested above. It also affords excellent opportunity to rehearse choruses and give practice to the school orchestra.

Music has far too small a place in the ordinary curriculum. The principal should give all the encouragement he can to voluntary musical organizations. By displaying them cleverly he can usually develop a public sentiment that will warrant the board in providing more music teaching. Boys at the age when their voices are changing constitute a special problem in music teaching. It is a good idea to encourage them to organize mandolin clubs. Since the mandolin is strung like the violin, a violin teacher can handle mandolin classes. The novelty usually appeals to the boys, so that at just the age when they are likely to lose interest permanently in music, they learn instead to read music and to play an instrument. Later it becomes an easy step from mandolins to violins, for the reason just stated; so that out of the mandolin club, violin players are likely to develop. The knowledge of music gained in the mandolin club also paves the way for vocal music later.

There is probably no other student enterprise that will correlate with all departments of school work, and which has so many other claims to consideration, as a school paper, edited, composed, and printed at the schoolhouse. This

enterprise is being undertaken in some large high schools, and there is no reason why a small school cannot undertake something of the sort, if nothing more than a section in the local weekly. Material can be furnished by all departments. It affords admirable motivation for teaching language, the manual work appeals to a certain type of mind, business experience and responsibility are involved in the enterprise, numerous mathematical problems can be furnished to arithmetic classes, and the sheet can be used to advertise the school and create sentiment in favor of the principal's policy.

A school employment agency is a good thing. It might serve as the entering wedge for a part time arrangement that would keep longer in school the boys who must work.

Dancing, as a rule, is an undesirable form of recreation under school auspices. It is questioned on psychological grounds, especially if indulged in excessively. Children of high school age are liable to be overstimulated by it, so that, as soon as the reaction sets in, they are bored by ordinary, humdrum experiences, tasks, and duties. If parents were willing to attend school dances and participate in them there would be no great danger, but there are probably very few places where parents would do this. Therefore the youngsters are usually left largely to themselves. Sometimes teachers are the kind that could and would supervise such a social function, but more often we do not have teachers whom parents desiring the highest good of their children would feel like trusting implicitly with boys and girls on such occasions. There are always pupils whose parents object to their dancing, for moral and religious reasons. If the school encourages dances these pupils must either remain at home, become wall-flowers, or break down the moral standards they have learned at home.

This last is a serious moral shock to persons as yet too young safely to assert intellectual self-reliance in the matter of moral code making.

While there are many village schools which have too few student activities, there is danger on the other hand that the matter be overdone, and especially that participation be poorly distributed. Some pupils are apt to take part in too many things, while others are liable to be left out altogether. The principal should formulate, or cause the students themselves to formulate, some rules to prevent pupils getting too many irons in the fire at once. The greater the variety of student activities the less liable the reticent ones are to be left out. But with a growing multiplicity of such activities there is danger of the tail wagging the dog. New organizations should not be permitted without faculty approval.

Student Finances. — Student activities involving the expenditure of money should be handled in conformity with good business usage. There are two reasons for this: (1) it teaches the students what good business usage is; and (2) it safeguards them from temptations that might train them in dishonesty. The second is very important indeed. Both the collection and the expenditure of money should be systematically supervised. No assessment should be made without the O. K. of the principal or an advisory committee of the faculty. Students should be taught to consider their budgets carefully, before presenting them to the principal for his O. K. When an assessment has been O. K.'d by the principal the collectors should receive from the school auditor an official number designating the particular assessment, together with recorded receipt books. The money should be turned in to the school auditor and the receipt stubs checked up.

For the purchase of goods a requisition blank should be filled out by the students and O. K.'d by the principal or advisory committee. This blank should be made out in triplicate, one to be returned by the principal or advisory committee, one to be turned over to the school auditor, and one presented by the student to the merchant. The student writes in his requisition blank the prices charged by the merchant, but the merchant sends his bill to the school auditor. Obviously the student's purchase must not exceed the requisition. The books of the society treasurer will then record on one side the requisition which the student turns in, and on the other the auditor's voucher for payments made in behalf of the society. A simpler but far less satisfactory method is to audit the society's receipted bills, holding officers of the society personally responsible.

Aside from the matter of business methods it may be remarked that students who have more money to spend than is good for them often exert disproportionate influence, for obvious reasons, in the levying of society and class assessments, while the children of the poor often suffer serious embarrassment from such thoughtless assessments. Principals should guard against this evil, and train those who have, to be thoughtful of those who have not.

The Coöperation of Institutions.—The principal who has raised a family, or who has the sociologist's appreciation of the social function of the family, will realize that the school ought to coöperate far more studiously with the home than it does in most places. Getting up something for young people to go to may be a useful service for those young people who would otherwise be in objectionable places, but for the adolescent whose recreation and happiness are carefully provided for at

home it is a doubtful benefit, to put the matter mildly. Children and adolescents ought to be occupied at home with their share of the family work, and with music, good books, popcorn and taffy, mother's stories, and other happy experiences around the fireside. To infect the youth who has such a home with the go-somewhere-to-night bacillus is a distinct damage to him. Once a week away from home is often enough for such fortunate youths. The school should overtly encourage such family life. And by coöperating with intelligent, careful parents many happy social functions can be held at the homes instead of somewhere else, thus strengthening instead of weakening normal home ties.

It is but a short step from the wholesome development of student activities in the village school to the solution of the problem of wholesome recreation for the village. A school with a community life within itself readily becomes a community center for the village. For instance it would not be difficult to prepare some kind of entertainment to be put on at the schoolhouse every Friday evening. If schools, churches, and other social units could coöperate in this it should work out even more satisfactorily; though the meeting might not always occur at the schoolhouse. If, then, study hours could be maintained four nights a week, by coöperation of parents, teachers, and city officials, a much more desirable situation would obtain than is usual in most small towns. The coöperation of institutions in recreational activities would be exceedingly advantageous in many respects. As a step in that direction we recommend that the schools omit all Christmas and Easter programs. Those occasions belong to the churches; but of late years the schools, by usurping a field that does not belong to them, have made it almost impossible

for churches to do anything with the children at those religious seasons. There is, however, certain Christmas and Easter music used in all churches that might by special arrangement be prepared by the schools for use at the churches.

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PART FOUR
THE BUSINESS SIDE

CHAPTER XIII

THE MATERIAL EQUIPMENT

The New School Plant. — A revolution in the type of plant required to house and equip our schools is in rapid progress. The old-fashioned village schoolhouse consisted of a building with two to eight rooms for the elementary grades, and a high school assembly room with one or more recitation rooms, depending upon the size of the village. Heat was provided by stoves or hot air furnaces, and ventilation was through windows and doors. All the ground required was for a small playground. These old buildings are rapidly giving place to plants better adapted to modern theories and practices in education. The program of studies and activities is becoming more varied, and these curricular innovations require much more elaborate equipment and facilities than the old curriculum called for. A new type of building is accordingly evolving. In addition to study and recitation rooms, the new type of building must provide library, gymnasium, swimming pools, baths, toilets, laboratories of various kinds, shops, art rooms, music and drawing rooms, kitchens and dining rooms, modern heating, and ventilating and cleaning equipments. Outside there must be ground for gardening and soil experiments, facilities for other agricultural instruction, and provision for a great variety of athletic sports. Moreover the "wider use of the school plant" for community purposes

demands a wider plant adapted to such uses. And there are indications that school activities will be modified and expanded as much in the next fifteen years as they have been during the past forty. Therefore, only the most thorough student of educational theory is prepared to advise a school board in the construction of a permanent school building. Many of the structures now being built at large expense will undoubtedly prove an obstacle to educational progress in the not distant future.

It follows, therefore, that school architecture is one of the subjects on which the rising young superintendent must inform himself thoroughly. He needs such information, on general principles, as a part of his professional preparation; he needs it also in order to lead the sentiment of his board and his public in the direction of needed improvements in equipment and plant. But the village principal has the most immediate need for such information if his board is about to build a new schoolhouse, or even remodel their old one. The country is full of "constructional blunders," expensive handicaps to educational progress, for which ignorant superintendents are at least in part responsible. The scope of this book precludes a discussion of the principles of schoolhouse construction. We limit ourselves to the suggestions in the References as to the best sources of information on that subject.

The children of the future should, however, have some more adequate protection from the ignorance of present day school boards and the parsimony of taxpayers than merely the intelligence and meager influence of the principal who happens to be in charge when the building is put up. Building codes are needed in many states, and laws, recommended by building

experts, that will compel and direct the proper construction, reconstruction, and equipment of school buildings.

Remodeling the Old Building. -- There is a special use for his knowledge of school architecture which any principal is likely to have at any time in the course of his year's work, and that is in the suggestion and superintendence of repairs. It often happens that with a relatively slight expenditure for repairs or remodeling the usefulness of an old plant can be greatly increased. For instance, one of the writers recently visited a small village school in which the mere removal of a partition, with the substitution of folding doors or a rolling partition, would provide the community with a better auditorium than the town now possesses. The other author knows a small school where the principal wished to work out a junior high school, but had been prevented from doing so because of having no room large enough to house it. After studying the matter over more carefully it was found that by removing the partition between the seventh and eighth grade rooms ample seating capacity could be provided as well as space enough to partition off two small recitation rooms. This would undoubtedly be the case in a great many of our older type of buildings. It sometimes happens that money is spent for ill-advised repairs. In his survey of the Salt Lake City schools Professor Cubberley ¹ cites the case of new floors laid at considerable expense in buildings where alterations of rooms and improved toilet facilities were much more needed. He points out that in the matter of repairs preference is apt to be given to the kind of repair work that is the simplest, which requires the least planning and supervision, and which is at the same time of the least educational benefit. Boards have been known

¹ *School Organization and Administration*, p. 266.

to go to the expense of fitting up a couple of attic rooms or even of digging out and walling up the basement under the building, in either case getting rooms that were very unsatisfactory from the standpoint of accessibility, light, and ventilation. The same amount of money, wisely expended and planned, would have put on an addition to the main school building much better adapted to the needs of a school. Such mistakes would be prevented if the principal himself were intelligently informed in the matter of school architecture, and capable of intelligent foresight and supervision. If he is so qualified he will secure an appropriation for repairs and alterations in the annual budget, and the money so appropriated will be made to yield the largest possible returns in increased school efficiency.

Equipment. — It is not only necessary for the principal to know what a well built school is, but he must know also whether or not his school is well furnished. For the guidance of inexperienced principals the following inventory is suggested.

The primary room should contain:

1. Pupils' adjustable desks. If adjustable desks are not available desks should be of different sizes.
2. Teacher's desk, which should be provided with locks and keys.
3. Teacher's closet or storeroom in which to keep supplies in a neat and orderly manner.
4. At least two good pictures, more if possible. Fewer pictures of a better class are to be preferred to a larger number of cheaper pictures.
5. Sand table, minimum size, 3 ft. by 6 ft.
6. Kindergarten tables and small chairs enough to accommodate one class at a time.

7. Wall clock.

8. Window shades with adjustable rollers that may be raised or lowered to shut off the light from any part of the window.

9. Ample blackboard space. No blackboard is so satisfactory as slate. While the first cost is much more than that of the composition boards, in the long run slate is cheapest and costs far less to keep in repair.

10. Pencil sharpener. These are now very inexpensive, costing from \$1.50 up, and are a convenience that should not be overlooked.

11. Eraser cleaner. While the cost of these may be prohibitive in some cases, it is the most satisfactory plan to have a small electrically driven eraser cleaner in each room, and to have the children take turns in keeping the erasers clean.

12. Paper cutter for the teacher.

13. A few practical books on primary work for teacher's use.

14. Such textbooks, paint boxes, crayolas, scissors, and other kindergarten material as the teacher feels the need of.

15. Teacher should be supplied with all blanks required for making reports to principal or superintendent.

Speaking of equipment for the primary room, one of the most interesting and satisfactory experiments that either of the authors has ever tried was to take out all pupils' desks, and have low tables instead, accommodating ten pupils each, with small kindergarten chairs. Each table was provided with one or two paste bottles, one cone of pins, scissors enough for each child, one small box for drawing paper, one for writing paper, and what other material the work of the children required. The children kept their books in small individual

boxes arranged at one side of the room. Each table was conducted on a little community plan, each child taking a keen interest in having his table kept in neat and tidy order. Very soon after the introduction of his plan the children learned to say "Please pass the paste," or "Please hand me a sheet of paper." This freedom, instead of being tied to an old style desk, was productive of excellent results. Furthermore the room could very easily be cleared for the playing of games requiring considerable room. If the schoolroom is large enough, a homelike atmosphere may be created in a primary room by arranging a cozy corner with decorations to suit the season. As a special favor pupils may be granted the privilege of spending a half hour or so in this corner, entertaining themselves by reading some favorite story book, looking at pictures, or in similar occupation which is especially attractive. This idea is susceptible of application in the higher grades also.

Equipment for other grades will be the same as for the primary with these changes :

Kindergarten material will be omitted.

Each room should be provided with at least five sets of supplementary readers.

All grades above and including the fourth should be provided with wall maps and suspension globe.

Grades above and including the fifth should have individual dictionaries suited to their age, and also one unabridged dictionary for each room.

Each grade should be supplied with one or more sets of geographical readers.

The materials necessary for the standard tests should be kept on hand in each grade or in the principal's office.

Laboratories are assuming a more prominent place in the equipment of a school. It is impossible to teach well geography, physiology, biology, chemistry, physics, manual training, domestic science, or agriculture without fairly well-equipped laboratories. Space does not permit going into the equipment required for each of these subjects. Teachers of these departments should be qualified to equip their laboratories. Suffice it to say that the laboratory method in every case is far more satisfactory than the textbook method.

The high school at least, and as many other grades as possible, should have a piano. A victrola is likewise a most desirable piece of equipment. If the school is to become the center that it should be, it will also have a stereopticon or moving picture machine.

Drinking fountains should be provided on each floor and in places most accessible to pupils.

As for textbooks, it will be found most satisfactory in the long run to have the district furnish them. In fact it is an implication of compulsory attendance. Free texts will cost the district much less, can be kept neat and clean by using a new paper cover whenever the book changes hands, and can be more easily changed without loss to the taxpayers of the community. It is perhaps a good idea to have children make a deposit of fifty cents or a dollar to cover loss or damage through carelessness on the part of a pupil. At the close of the year the deposit is returned to pupils with any deduction necessary. This prevents carelessness and loss of books through negligence. One of the authors has usually been able to get the consent of parents to let children have this deposit fee, or what remains of it at the end of the year,

to start or add to the pupil's savings account. Thus about 80 per cent of the pupils have become savings depositors. The result is that they are very keen about taking care of books loaned to them in order to have the whole deposit fee returned at the close of the year. The rubber stamp below

CARRINGTON, N. D. PUBLIC SCHOOLS

TO WHOM LOANED	LOANED	RETURNED	REMARKS

FIG. 5. Stamp for free textbooks.

is found satisfactory in marking free textbooks. In the "remarks" column is noted condition of books when loaned or fine collected when book is returned. Books are numbered serially with the addition of numerals indicating year of purchase. Thus a set of arithmetics would be numbered 117 — 217 — 317, through the whole set, the first number being the serial number, and the 17 indicating that the book

was purchased in 1917. This gives in a simple way a good record of the life of a book, and a teacher can easily ascertain the age and usage of each book.

Magazines and Books. — Beginning with the fifth grade each room should have access to some good magazines. In the schools of Carrington, North Dakota, the following are in use:

Fifth grade: *Rotary*.

Sixth grade: *American Boy*.

Seventh grade: *National Geographic*.

Eighth grade: *Youth's Companion* and *Popular Mechanics*.

High School: *World's Work*, *American*, *Ladies' Home Journal*, *Everybody's*, *Century*, *Current Opinion*, *Literary Digest*, *Good Housekeeping*, *Technical World*, and *North American Review*. These magazines, as the current issues are received, are put into a substantial binder (such as the Bull-dog Binder, Gaylord Bros., Syracuse, N. Y.) and at the close of the week or month are filed in the school library for reference.

The upper grades should have some brief, practical encyclopedia in the room, and the high school at least one of the more exhaustive or more technical sets of encyclopedia. Too much emphasis cannot be put on the reference library. We have been drifting away from the doing of reference work, and our schools should attempt to counteract the tendency, provided accurate and thorough work with textbooks is not neglected. Ample provision, as ample as funds will permit, should be made for this work. Most states publish a list of approved library books. They should be classified and catalogued according to the Dewey System, even in a small school. It may be impossible to employ a librarian, in which case it is

well to select a member of one of the upper classes to act as librarian, teaching him the fundamentals of library practice and perhaps allowing a half unit of credit for the time taken and the work accomplished.

The Principal's Office. — This is perhaps an appropriate place to say a few words about the arrangement of the principal's office. The economy of time and nerve strain with which he works will depend considerably upon the convenience and orderliness of his office. Besides letters, for which there should be a convenient file, all sorts of records, bulletins, catalogues, and advertisements will accumulate. Some arrangements must be made for sorting and filing these for future reference. Various cabinets are on the market for this purpose. In lieu of something expensive homemade pockets can be used, such as are used in libraries for holding bulletins and pamphlets. The back and bottom are made of thin boards and the sides of poster board. They can be kept on book shelves, each one labeled on the back as to its contents. These files may be purchased from Andrus and Church, Ithaca, N. Y., at six cents apiece. If the files are kept up to date by replacing the old with new editions as they appear, the principal will find them a very neat and convenient arrangement.

The principal's office should contain suitable shelves, or better still, closed cases, where these files may be kept free from dust. Files should be arranged alphabetically. The following heads are suggestive.

1. Agricultural bulletins.
2. Agricultural catalogues.
3. Art catalogues.
4. Book catalogues.
5. Furniture and fixture catalogues.

6. General school supply catalogues.
7. Inspectors' reports.
8. Local bulletins or clippings.
9. Manual training catalogues.
10. Play and entertainment catalogues.
11. School catalogues. (The principal should keep on file an up-to-date list of catalogues from his own state schools and other colleges.)
12. Science catalogues.
13. State examinations (old sets).
14. School laws of his own and other states.

Every school man subscribes for and reads some educational magazine. Many of the valuable and suggestive articles appearing therein would be useful later on if some method of cataloguing them were devised. The complete files of the magazines can be kept and a small card index made of the most noteworthy subjects treated.

In order to systematize things so that the great amount of work which devolves upon the principal may be taken care of with a minimum of time, he should be provided with some sort of filing cabinet wherein he may keep folders containing all material or correspondence bearing on any particular subject or activity. It will be found a matter of great convenience to have folders filed under the following headings: Athletics, Alumni, Commencement, Contests, Directions to Teachers, Disciplinary Cases, Enrollment, Janitors, Inventories, Lectures and Entertainments, Medical Inspection, Programs of Teachers, Reports, Records, Supervision, Teachers' Credentials, Teachers' Meetings, and Tuition Pupils. Such a file will save the proverbially absent-minded principal many an embarrassment.

His office should also contain such bookcases as are needed for what professional books he may have immediate use for, also for copies of all the texts used in the various rooms, as well as textbooks in similar subjects by other publishers. He should also have a convenient place wherein to keep the records of pupils under lock and key. His desk should be likewise protected. Two very essential pieces of apparatus in the principal's office are a typewriter and a mimeograph. While the initial cost is quite heavy the work of the principal demands them and they will prove a great convenience and will add materially to the success of his work.

Janitorial Equipment. — Just a word in regard to the equipment needed by the janitor. The school should be the model of cleanliness, and no reasonable expense should be spared in putting into the hands of the janitor the tools necessary to make it so. Every room, hall, and corridor should be cleanly swept every day. For this a fiber brush is better than a broom, a spring handle is better than a rigid handle in sweeping around desks and chairs. Heavy brooms should be provided for sweeping steps and walks. Sweeping should be done in the evening and every pupil's and teacher's desk should be dusted in the morning at least a half hour before the arrival of the children. To aid in keeping a proper temperature every room should have a thermometer. All minor repairs should be made by the janitor. For this purpose he must have a set of tools, with a good place for keeping the same. His storeroom should give sufficient space for the safekeeping of all sanitary supplies — towels, toilet paper, soap, floor oil, brushes, brooms, dusters, disinfectants, and inks. Steel drums are excellent for keeping oils and liquid soap, since they prevent seepage.

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CHAPTER XIV

SCHOOL HOUSEKEEPING

The Principal's Responsibility. - With the installation of more and more complicated appliances for heating, ventilating, lighting, and cleaning, school housekeeping is coming to be more and more of a science. It is a science, moreover, of which the school administrator must be master. The young principal must never forget that he is superintendent of the whole school, and that it is just as much a part of his business to understand the work of the janitor and see to it that that work is well done as it is to supervise the work of his teachers. And this part of his profession involves a specialized technique just as does the supervision of class management and the instructional process. It will be impossible to devote enough space here to furnishing principals with the technical information they will need. Mere outlines and suggestions must suffice. The best book to own is Dresslar's *School Hygiene* (Macmillan). This book discusses the principles of schoolhouse construction and of school housekeeping.

The principal's first task in school housekeeping is to study his plant. In what particulars is his equipment inadequate to the instructional needs of his children? What must he ask for at once, and what can be added gradually? What repairs and alterations in the building itself are needed immediately, and what can be postponed? What changes are

imperative in seats, window shades, or toilet furniture? All this will constitute a sort of survey by the new principal himself of his material equipment; his policy will be determined in part by his findings.

Teachers will usually need some instruction in the various phases of hygienic housekeeping. They must know how to put the children into suitably sized seats, or to adjust the seat to the size of the child; they must know how to handle the window shades; how to abate the chalk dust nuisance; how to prevent the accumulation of dirt and the stirring up of dust; how to regulate heat; how to avoid the unsanitary use of pencils and other utensils. If teachers do not understand these things and conduct their rooms accordingly, the principal must see that they inform themselves at once. It is fortunate for almost any teacher to be compelled to do some useful prescribed reading.

Heating. The principal must thoroughly understand, and know how to operate, his heating, ventilating, and lighting systems. If stoves are used, they must be jacketed. "This may be done by moving the stove to a corner of the room, surrounding all sides of it save the door with a sheet iron casing, set six or eight inches from the stove, and connecting this space with the outside air by means of a carefully constructed fresh air duct. The jacket ought to fit closely to the floor, and about the door of the stove, and extend a few inches above the door of the stove." Obviously the heat will set up a circulation of air, thus aiding in ventilation. Provision should be made for the escape of foul air, either by opening the windows a little at the top, or preferably through an outlet connected with the smoke flue. A hot air furnace is really a jacketed stove in the basement, and requires relatively

little technical knowledge or skill to manage. It needs, however, to be inspected every summer in order to make sure that it is in good repair before it has to be fired up in the fall. If the hot air furnace is properly installed and in good repair, it is about as satisfactory a system as there is for use in small schoolhouses. It is very easy, however, to waste fuel by improper feeding.

One of the greatest difficulties connected with heating is to secure sufficient humidity. Dry air parches the membranes of nose and throat, thus contributing to disorders of those parts, besides weakening the resistance to disease germs. It also causes excessive evaporation from the skin, thus increasing the artificial heat required. Artificially dry air irritates the nervous system in ways not well understood. If sufficient provision for moistening the air is not provided in the original construction of the furnace some relief can be secured by hanging pails or setting basins of water in the hot air registers, though this will be found to disturb the distribution of hot air. No attempt should ever be made to regulate the heat of a schoolroom without a good thermometer to rely upon; and there are also scientific devices for testing humidity. The normal temperature for rooms where children are sitting is about 68° to 70°, but rooms in which children are moving about, e.g. laboratories, gymnasiums, shops, and toilets, may be several degrees cooler.

If the school is large enough to warrant a system of steam or hot water heating, it becomes necessary to employ a janitor who can give it the expert attention it requires. This will be found to involve intelligent skill both as an engineer and a steam fitter. It will not require a plant of any very great size to demand the services of such a func-

tionary in addition to those of a janitor. But even so the principal should understand the heating plant well enough himself to determine whether the engineer really knows his business or is only pretending to do so. A winter job of this sort would look attractive to almost any Jack-of-all-trades, but the board should understand that a really competent man cannot be employed for the wages of unskilled labor.

Ventilation. — It is more difficult to ventilate schoolrooms in warm weather than in cold for the simple reason that there is no difference in temperature between inside and outside air, and consequently no difference between air at the floor and at the ceiling. Circulation is therefore hard to produce. Special attention must accordingly be given to the problem of ventilation during the warm season. Windows should be wide open at both bottom and top. If an artificial system of ventilation (independent of the heating plant) is in use, warm weather is just the time when its services can least be dispensed with. If window ventilation is depended upon, the problem is to prevent direct drafts. The window board device is useful to this end. A board is sawed to fit under the lower sash when it is raised a few inches. This permits the air to come in between the two sashes. Double windows are very desirable in cold climates, but if the outside sash is a stationary storm sash there should be a ventilator at the top as well as at the bottom. At least one window in each room should be left without a storm sash, so that the room can be flushed at recess. This window should be the one at the front of the room near which no child sits, as such a window is liable to be a cold one to sit by. Flushing the room at recess is a good practice. It can sometimes be done

during school hours if care is taken not to make the room too cold. It is well to have the children engage in calisthenic exercises while this flushing process is going on. But flushing must not be depended upon. There must be a constant intake of fresh air and outlet of foul air. Teachers should be impressed with the fact that they presently become insensitive to the foul air of their classrooms and cannot therefore rely upon their own feeling as indicators of atmospheric conditions. It must be a fixed principle with them to keep the air changing. If the building is equipped with an artificial ventilating system, the principal must see to it that teachers know how to use it and that they actually do make proper use of it.

Lighting. — If a principal is compelled to use an old building with ill-planned lighting, he should by no means allow himself to become indifferent to such a situation. It spoils too many eyes at best to run our schools. If there is anything he can do to obstruct light from objectionable directions, such as curtaining front windows, changing the frontage of seats, or covering the bottoms of low windows, he should do it by all means. Unfortunately the textbooks on school hygiene are desolately barren of suggestions along this line.

Keeping the Schoolhouse Clean. — The schoolhouse should be "as neat as a well kept home and as clean as a hospital." Many village and country schools sin grievously against this rule. The authors have visited schools where halls, closets, and furnace rooms were cluttered with all sorts of utensils and rubbish, and where the sodless soil was only less abundant inside than outside. Those parts of the school yard where it is hopeless to make grass grow should be well covered with gravel so that there will be no mud to track into the house.

Inside there should be a place for everything and everything in its place. A slovenly, neglected schoolhouse is inexcusable, and has a damaging influence on the characters of children.

Every teacher should be held strictly accountable for the cleanliness and care of equipment and property intrusted to her. If the janitor fails to do his full duty, this should be reported to the principal. Pupils should be taught to take pride in keeping their room, desks, and books just a little neater than those of the pupils of any other room. No markings of any kind should be allowed to remain on walls, furniture, or books. The person responsible for such markings should be made to remove it and repair any damage himself. A money fine for such damage is easily obtained by a call on the family purse without any special punitive effect on the child. But if he is made to do the actual work of repair, it will serve as a good lesson. Often by ordinary wear a desk top will become soiled and unsightly. Each boy should be encouraged to go to the manual training department, get whatever is needed in way of sandpaper, stains, or varnish, and put his desk in good shape. Nothing will cause him to take pride in his desk more than this. He will usually display a little gallantry and ask to fix up the desk of his sister across the aisle. The teacher's desk should be a model of neatness at all times. She should also be provided with mending tissue and adhesive tape for the repair of books when necessary. Pupils, if encouraged therein, will take a keen interest in mending any torn pages or broken book backs. Anything about the room needing attention should be taken care of immediately. Things will not then have the appearance of being neglected, and pupils will always be eager to keep things as they should be kept.

Pupils should at all times, before, during, and after school, observe the same decorum one would expect to find in a public library. They should not make a playground or gymnasium out of the schoolroom. They should march to classes in order and without communication. No pupils should come into their rooms before school unless they come in to read or study. Of course in severe winter weather a teacher's judgment will guide her in the enforcement of this.

It is a fundamental principle in the cleaning of schoolhouses that dust is the criminal that carries disease germs and that causes disease by sheer mechanical irritation of delicate membranes. Care should be taken to prevent dust. Furnish facilities for cleaning the shoes, and see that the children use them. Keep erasers and chalk troughs carefully cleaned daily. If no mechanical appliances are provided for cleaning erasers, they should be taken outdoors and thoroughly cleaned at least once a week. Blackboards should be sponged, not water-soaked, weekly. Avoid unnecessary commotion in the schoolrooms.

For cleaning schoolrooms the old-fashioned broom and duster are outlaws. They remove only the visible dirt while stirring up the invisible dust to settle at night, ready to swarm to its nefarious business as soon as the children arrive. Floors should be oiled. First clean the floor thoroughly. When dry spread the oil on thin, wiping up what does not soak in. Do this three times a year, but at least three days before the floor is to be used. Walls should also be cleaned on these periodic occasions.

The following table from Lambert¹ shows the effect of oiling upon the spread of disease germs:

¹ See Hoag and Terman, "Health Work in the Schools."

PLATES EXPOSED	COLONIES OF BACTERIA	
	Oiled floors	Unoled floors
5 minutes in still air	0	7
30 minutes in still air	2	12
5 minutes during sweeping	38	456
5 minutes just after sweeping	11	79
5 minutes beginning 10 minutes after sweeping .	6	62
5 minutes beginning 15 minutes after sweeping .	1	31

Sweeping should be done with a sweeping compound or dampened sawdust to prevent dust from rising. Fiber or hair brush brooms are much to be preferred. Dusting should be done with damp cloths. The woodwork should be wiped or washed free of dust at stated and not infrequent intervals, and upon occasion the rooms should be disinfected by methods advised by the physician. In new schoolhouses a vacuum cleaning system should be installed.

Toilets. — Toilets require special attention. Some schools become habituated to indecent toilet conditions. If outside privies are used — they ought to be abolished — care must be taken to prevent demoralizing indecencies, and pains must be taken to keep them scrupulously clean. This will require the attention of the janitor at least daily, and the application of quicklime or dry dust or ashes. It is very essential to have well-cared-for toilet facilities. Toilets should be cleaned daily. Janitors have considerable time during school hours for this kind of work. Toilets, besides being kept clean, must be kept in good repair and plentifully supplied with paper. If facilities for washing are provided, — and of course they should be, — the roller towel must not be tolerated, but paper towels should be furnished. It is

advisable to permit only one pupil to leave the room at a time. It is well to have him place his name on the blackboard space provided for this, with the time of leaving and time of returning. At the close of the day the teacher has, on this board a record of those who have left the room, and can readily ascertain whether any have been abusing this privilege.

Movements of Children. — The success of school house-keeping depends in part upon the movements of children in the building.

For fire drills it is well to have a gong in the hall. There should be a special signal for fire drill, and when it is given the teacher should immediately form pupils in line, single or double file, depending on the width of hall and the outer door. The teacher should stand at the head of her own line and in her own door until the gong strikes a second time, this being the signal to march. If the width of the halls permits, the files from two or more rooms may march out abreast. If there is more than one entrance, all should be used. The teacher should go at the head of her line and insist on pupils keeping in line. For the first and perhaps second drill it is well for the principal to inform his teachers; then it may be called without previous warning. The principal may tell pupils and teachers not to be frightened as he intends to light a small fire in the basement before the next drill. After one or two trials with this warning the drill can be called without previous warning, but with the smoke. Thus can pupils be taught to conduct themselves in a prearranged fire drill just as they should in case of an actual fire.

The Janitor. — The janitor is a very important employee of the school. If he is a man of the right kind of character, he can be very useful in the discipline of the school. It goes

without saying that he must be faithful in the discharge of his duties. He must be intelligent enough to understand not only what needs to be done but the why as well. For instance, he should understand why schoolhouses should be cleaned in such a way as to suppress dust. He should be able to make minor repairs in the equipment of the school plant, and, as has been said, if he is given charge of complicated mechanical fixtures, he should understand their use thoroughly. The janitor should be strictly under the control of the superintendent, who should prescribe for him a schedule of duties and inspect his work from time to time.

REFERENCES

AYRES, WILLIAMS, and WOOD. *Healthful Schools*.

A good new book on the subject.

RICHARDSON, ROBERT E. *The Selection and Supervision of Janitors*, in School Board Journal, May, 1918.

Shows how this service is beginning to be professionalized in progressive cities.

Dear Parent:	
I have detained.....	this
evening for the following reason.....	
Pupil was dismissed at P.M.	
Date	Teacher.....

FIG. 6. — FORM FOR REPORTING DETENTION AFTER SCHOOL. Teachers who appreciate the careful parent's point of view will see the need for this blank. Many a child has begun a wrong course by getting into mischief when his parents supposed he was staying after school. These blanks should not be kept where pupils can get them.

REGISTRATION CARD		MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS	
To be filled out by parent or guardian and returned to Principal without delay.			
Date	191	School	
Pupil's full name.....			
Pupil's Minneapolis Address			
Birthplace: City or Town		State or County	
Date of Birth: Day	Month	Year	Age last birthday
Sex (boy or girl)	Race (white, negro, Mongolian, Indian)		
Father's name.....		Nationality	
Residence.....		Occupation	
Mother's name.....		Nationality	
Residence.....		Occupation	
Guardian's name.....		Nationality	
Residence		Occupation.....	
THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT THE ABOVE INFORMATION IS CORRECT.			
Date,	191	Signature of Father (if living), or Guardian.....	
Date,	191	Signature of Mother (if living), or Guardian.....	

FIG. 7. — REGISTRATION CARD. The back of this card is ruled to show the pupil's brothers and sisters, with the age of each, the school each is attending, and if not attending, why.

CHAPTER XV

RECORDS, ACCOUNTS, AND REPORTS

The Uses of Records. — The first and fundamental problem confronting any student of education who tries to devise a set of school records is the problem of aim. What are the purposes for which school records are kept? Until that question is decided, tentatively at least, one hardly knows where to begin; and after he has begun he will be equally at a loss to know where to stop. Blanks and records can be devised endlessly, but there is undoubtedly a point of diminishing returns, beyond which their multiplication is not profitable at the present stage of our educational development, and beyond which the desired results may be more economically and certainly achieved by more direct means. The right location of that point will depend upon a proper concept of the purpose of school records.

The immediate purpose of school records is to keep permanent account of data that teachers, school officers, pupils, or patrons may need to know later. For example, the immediate purpose of financial records is to keep tab on the expenditure of school funds in case occasion should arise, as is certain to happen, when persons interested may wish for any reason to know what has become of the funds. Likewise numerous familiar occasions arise when it is desirable or even necessary to refer to a pupil's scholarship record.

The immediate purpose of records is the traditional one, and beyond this purpose too few persons, even educators, ever think. But there is another purpose, which might be called the ultimate purpose, and that is to render data available for educational science. An example would be the attempt to standardize unit costs. For this ultimate purpose, now coming to be a very important one, it is obvious that the records must be comparable and commensurate in very large numbers of schools. Indeed, so necessary are uniform records for all schools that the United States Bureau of Education has issued a report on the subject which will be repeatedly referred to in this chapter and the next.

A third purpose of records might be designated the intermediate, to signify their use by county, state, and federal government in tabulating statistical data for the guidance of governmental administration. The distinction between these three purposes is, of course, artificial; and no doubt they blend into one another, especially as the science of education is more and more applied to local administration. But the point is that school record keeping implies a great cloud of witnesses; and with this fact in mind it will seem far more significant and far less irksome to teachers and superintendent alike.

Standardization of School Records. — Considerable attention has been devoted in recent years to the standardization of school records. The most important thing in print on the subject is the Report of the Committee of the National Education Association on Uniform Records and Reports which was referred to above. This report has been reprinted by the University of Chicago Press, and by the Bureau of Education as Bulletin No. 3, 1912. It was an attempt, as

the name suggests, to outline a plan that could be followed by schools all over the country in order that they might furnish comparable figures as a basis for reliable statistics.

Professors Strayer and Engelhardt, of Teachers College, Columbia University, have worked out the most complete and scientific set of school records in existence. It is to be hoped that the results of their work will presently be available to the profession in printed form. Meantime the authors are under obligation to them for permission to present some of their most important forms.

Classification of Instructional Records. — School records are usually classified under two heads: instructional and financial, though as health work develops in the schools a third category tends to emerge. The following outline will serve as a standard inventory of the instructional records that should be kept in a small system, and will indicate the relation of these records to one another. A study of the forms themselves will reveal their specific uses.

Instructional Records

I. Attendance.

1. Census.

a. Enumerator's Sheet (Fig. 10).

b. Superintendent's Card (Figs. 8, 9).

2. Registration Card (Figs. 7, 11, 12, 13).

3. Teacher's Register (Figs. 14, 15).

4. Pupil's Permanent Record Card (Fig. 16).

5. Transfer Cards (Figs. 11, 12, 17).

II. Progress.

1. Teacher's Class Record Cards.

2. Teacher's Scholarship Record (Figs. 13, 14, 45).

3. Report Cards to Parents.
4. Pupil's Permanent Record Card (Fig. 16).
5. Transfer Certificates (Figs. 11, 12, 17).

III. Health.

1. Clinic Records (Fig. 18).
2. Notification Cards.
3. Permanent Health Record (Figs. 18, 19).

IV. Miscellaneous.

1. Teacher Data.
 - a. Applications.
 - b. Recommendation.
 - c. Contract.
 - d. Professional Record.
 - e. Score Card (Figs. 20, 21).
2. Catalogue Files.
3. Letter Files.
4. Files for Other Miscellaneous Items.

Attendance Records. - The attendance record should furnish all needed data for checking up attendance with the school census; for showing all concerned what each pupil's attendance has been throughout his entire school career, with reasons for irregularity; and for correlating the records of all schools in order to facilitate statistical treatment with a view to administrative and scientific purposes. Progress records should reveal at any time and to any person responsible for the pupil his progress, as scientifically determined as possible. They should also furnish data for the graphic tabulation of progress tendencies of classes, schools, and systems, and of all the children of state and nation. The health records serve similar purposes, and the miscellaneous records called for in the list are self-explanatory.

(To be filed in the office of the superintendent of schools)

*Include public, private, parochial or evening schools here.

FIG. 8. — Superintendent's Census Card.

Record of Employment on Leaving School

Desires Employment 35

Work Certificate No. _____ Case Investigated _____ 19 _____ 19 _____ 19 _____ 19 _____
 Issued _____ 19 _____ 19 _____ 19 _____ 19 _____
 of Certificate _____
 Reason _____

Positions	Employer's Name	Employer's Address	Time of Starting			Time of Leaving		Kind of Work Done	Time Idle at this Position	What Chance for Promotion	Weekly Wages		Reason for Leaving
			Mo	Year	Mo	Year	Mo				Start	Finish	
1.													
2.													

FIG. 9. — Heading and first two lines of Employment Record.

Enumerating Sheet for Recording School Census Data

Code Numbers to be used in columns indicated by * Enumerator _____ District _____ For year _____

Authority for Date of Birth	Birthplace of Child or Father				Kind of School	How Employed					Not Enrolled in School	Defective	
	1. United States	5. Italy	9. Poland	13. Norway-Sweden		1. In stores, (cash boys, errand boys, etc.)	2. In offices, (book or message boys, etc.)	3. In restaurants, (waiters, etc.)	4. In factories, (machine shop, etc.)	5. In other occupations			6. Unemployed
1. Birth Certificate													
2. Baptismal Cert.													
3. Bible Record													
4. Bible Record													
5. Child's Statement													

No.	Name of Children		Date of Birth		Birthplace of		Parents or Guardian		Residence	End School		Not Enrolled in School		Defective
	Last Name	First Name	Mo	Day Year	Mo	Day Year	Father	Mother		For	Address	For	Address	
1														
2														

FIG. 10. — Heading and first two lines of Enumerator's School Census Sheet.

Reproduced from Strayer Engelhardt's School Record Card Series, by permission of the publishers, C. F. Williams & Son, Inc., Albany.

SEMESTER CARD															
Record of _____										Term 19 and 19					
(Last name first)										(I or II)					
Year _____					Course, Age		Yrs. Mos.		Record Page _____						
From what School _____										Member Lit Society <i>r</i> _____					
Outside Work _____										Expect to Graduate _____ (Give Name)					
Attend College _____										Vocational Interest _____					
(Give name of college and course selected)															
Hour	Subject	Term in Study	1st Month	2d Month	3d Month	4th Month	D.R.	E.	S.	A.	Times Absent	Times Late	Approx. Lapses	Room	Teacher
I	Record Room														
II															
III															
IV															
V															
VI															
VII															

REGISTER																
Name (Last name first)	Date	Date of Birth														
Address	Sex	Telephone														
Parent's Name	Birth Place															
Parent's Business Address	Resident or Non Resident															
Parent's Occupation	Condition of Health															
Class entered in Central High School	Attendance															
	Weeks	M	T	W	T	F	M	T	W	T	F	M	T	W	T	F
Entering on Certificate from	1 2 3															
	4 5 6															
Remarks	7 8 9															
	10 11 12															
	13 14 15															
(OVER)	16 17 18															

FIG. 13. — High School Enrollment Card (J. H. Teuton).

Progress Records. — The notations which the teacher makes in her class book are the basis for the progress records. How the teacher keeps that record is perhaps immaterial. Some teachers prefer the conventional class book that can be had for a few cents at any school supply house ; some prefer a little packet of plain cards, one for each pupil. There is no doubt, however, that Bagley is right in asserting¹ that such records should be conscientiously, though not laboriously, kept in some form. For reporting progress to parents, two cards are necessary, one for the grades, and a different one for the high school. The elementary card should be ruled both ways, horizontally for the months, which are listed down the left end of the card ; vertically for the elementary subjects, and also for tardiness, absence, conduct, and grade, all of which are listed along the top of the card. The margins of the card contain necessary explanations. The high school card should have blanks for attendance, deportment, and application. The subjects should be written in the spaces provided for the purpose, to the right of which should be as many columns as there will be reports made during the year. On the back of the card should be explanations, and spaces for parents' signatures — enough to last a year. Some principals furnish blanks on which parents may write excuses for absence. These should be managed to avoid forgery. High school principals also have use for printed forms to certify that a given subject (to be filled in in the blank space provided) has been completed ; and also for a printed or mimeographed sheet on which to list the credits that a pupil is taking to another school.

¹ *Classroom Management*, p. 178.

Scale of Ranking ○ A= % to % or Excellent B= % to % or Good C= % to % Fair or Passable D= % to % Unsatisfactory E= % to % or Very Poor	Conduct	Effort	Personal Appearance	Reading	Language	Spelling	Geography	History	Civics	Arithmetic	Writing	Drawing	Music	Physical Culture	Science	Hygiene	Manual Training	Sewing	Cooking	
	C.	Eff.	P. A.	R.	L.	S.	G.	H.	Ci.	A.	W.	D.	M.	P. C.	S.	Hy.	M. T.	S.	Co.	
Sept.																				
Oct.																				
Nov.																				
Dec.																				
Jan.																				
Monthly Average																				
Examinations																				
Term Mark																				
Feb.																				
Mar.																				
Apr.																				
May																				
June																				
Examinations																				
Final Mark																				

DIRECTIONS: 1. This sheet should contain the attendance and scholarship record of a pupil for an entire year, and is to be sent from building to building or room to room when the pupil transfers from one school to another, or when he has entered the other school. Dr. T. in case he does not return on the seventh half-day. Of course if the pupil is absent and it is known he will not return to the school system during the year, he should be marked Dr. P. enter reason for dropping.

GRANT-LEACHMAN SCHOOLS, RECORD CARD SERIES—C. P. WILLIAMS & SON, INC., ALBANY, N. Y.

FIG. 15. — Bottom half of Page from Teacher's Register. — The back of this sheet is ruled for recording the findings of the standard tests.

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Elementary School Record

Superintendent's Duplicate
To be filed permanently in the office of the Superintendent of Schools

1. Last name

2. First name and initial

3. Date of admission

4. Age

5. Sex

6. Race

7. Birth date

8. Birth place

9. Date of birth

10. Date of admission

11. Date of graduation

12. Date of transfer

13. Date of transfer

14. Date of transfer

15. Date of transfer

16. Date of transfer

17. Date of transfer

18. Date of transfer

19. Date of transfer

20. Date of transfer

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94. Date of transfer

95. Date of transfer

96. Date of transfer

97. Date of transfer

98. Date of transfer

99. Date of transfer

100. Date of transfer

1. Place of birth

2. Name of parent or guardian

3. Place of residence before entering this school

4. School last attended

5. Let student remain at home

6. Personal interest

7. Commitment to

8. Transfer to

9. (Check reason for withdrawal)

10. CODE: DATE OF BIRTH: 1. BIRTH CERTIFICATE: 2. BAPTISMAL CERTIFICATE: 3. PASSPORT: 4. BIBLE RECORD: 5. FBI FIVE STATEMENT: 6. CHILD STATE MEX.

THE UTMOST CARE SHOULD BE USED IN RECORDING NAMES AND DATES IN THE FOLLOWING MANNER: 1919 9-23

AVOID ABBREVIATIONS. WRITE ALL DATES IN THE FOLLOWING MANNER: 1919 9-23

In the space below may be recorded: (1) cases of truancy; (2) cases of corporal punishment; (3) reasons for non-promotion; (4) other matters worthy of record, such as serious illness or pronounced characteristics likely to affect success.

For use by the Superintendent of Schools
To be filed permanently in the office of the Superintendent of Schools

High School Student's Record

1. Last name

2. First name and initial

3. Residence of parent or guardian (City and State)

4. Residence of student (City and State)

5. Telephone no. (City and State)

6. Course taken

7. Grade

8. Sex

9. Age

10. Date of admission

11. Date of graduation

12. Date of transfer

13. Date of transfer

14. Date of transfer

15. Date of transfer

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97. Date of transfer

98. Date of transfer

99. Date of transfer

100. Date of transfer

1. To work (Employer and occupation)

2. To remain at home

3. Transfer

4. Permanent change

5. Transfer to

6. Other reason

Record subjects as follows: "Eng 1 B" or "Amer Hist 4 A" dates as 8-24
Class-Final class used or Final-Final exam mark
H-Lexington (month or point) N-State (city)

FIG. 16.—Pupil's Permanent Record Card—Both Sides.

ATTENDANCE AND PUNCTUALITY							
191	Days Present	Days Absent	Times Tardy	191	Days Present	Days Absent	Times Tardy
September				February			
October				March			
November				April			
December				May			
January				June			

TRANSFER CARD To be filled out for the pupil in case of transfer to any other school, either in or outside of city.											
1. Last name						2. First name and initial					
6. Name of parent or guardian				7. Occupation of parent or guardian				4	Yr.	Mo.	Da.
8. Residence before discharge				8. New residence (or name of private or parochial school if pupil is transferred to one)				10. Age when discharged Years Month			
d. Grade	e. Room	f. Days Present	g. Health	h. Conduct	i. Scholarship	12. Date of last attendance					
School				j. Days absent		k. Times Tardy		9. Date of Discharge			
Teacher				Principal							
STRAYER-ENGELHARDT SCHOOL RECORD CARD SERIES, C. F. WILLIAMS & SON, INC., ALBANY, N. Y.											

FIG. 17. — Transfer Card — Both Sides.

Health and Miscellaneous Records. — In addition to the clinic record shown herewith a dental clinic card is desirable. The Strayer and Engelhardt card can be secured from C. F. Williams and Son, Albany, N. Y., as can also their forms for teachers' applications, recommendations, and professional record. Contracts can usually be obtained from the state department. The principal can easily devise forms for making health reports to parents. The Bureau of Education furnishes a classroom weight record which is very stimulating.

Professionalizing the Business Side. It is quite customary nowadays in writing on the administrative phases of education to liken the school to a business enterprise. While it is invidious to compare the ultimate spiritual results of teaching with the material products of manufacturing, nevertheless there is a certain similarity between the two enterprises. Both involve the expenditure of money; both aim at results which, even in the case of the school, can be measured with more or less accuracy. There is a certain sense, then, in which the administration of a school is a business enterprise and the principal a business man.

It is well therefore for the principal to think of himself not only as a teacher but also as an entrepreneur, for he is managing a public business involving a greater outlay than all the other public enterprises of the village combined. Without sacrificing the educator's point of view he should try to acquire the business manager's point of view also. This he can do by associating and conversing with men of commercial affairs, reading their magazines, and making an incidental study of accounting and business efficiency. President Thomas of Middlebury College says that the school super-

[illegible]

Address	(Use pencil)										School	(Use pencil)										Code
Date of exam.																		1. Birth Certificate				
Grade																		2. Baptismal Certificate				
Height																		3. Passport				
Weight																		4. Bible Record				
Vaccinations																		5. Parent's statement				
Left eye																		6. Child's statement				
Right eye																						
Left ear																						
Right ear																						
Adenoids																						
Throat																						
Teeth																						
Skull																						
Skin																						
Posture																						
Spine																						
Chest																						
Heart																						
Lungs																						
Feet																						
Genitals																						
Digestion																						
Nutrition																						
Temperature																						
Other defects																						
Binet age																						
Examined by																						

10

C. Pox	 Deformities	 Diphtheria	Grippe	
Headache	 Malaria	 Measles	Meningitis	
Mumps	 Pediculosis	 Pneumonia		
Scarlet Fever	 Small Pox	 Tonsillitis	Toothaches	
Tubercular	 Typhoid	 Whooping Cough		

Alcoholism Tuberculosis Insanity ...
Epilepsy Home conditions ...

[illegible]

*Check one; Code: †D-dental treatment; M-medical; O-operation; P-private physician; G-glasses; I-institution; ‡I-advice followed; ☐-no action; ap-action promised

[illegible]

FIG. 19. — Back of Fig. 18.

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

SUPERVISOR'S SCORE CARD

Devised by F. C. LANDSITEL

Name of Teacher	School	Location
Date..... Time of Visitation: Beginning..... End.....		
Subjects and Grades		
IV. PUPIL REACTION 220		
1. Command of subject-matter.....(40) 2. Completeness and correctness of expression.....(30) 3. Using knowledge.....(30) 4. Tastes and appreciations.....(25) 5. Democratic self-control, initiative..(45) 6. Spirit of inquiry and endeavor....(30) 7. Special skills.....(20)		
V. ROOM CONDITIONS 105		
1. Arrangement, order.....(25) 2. Attractiveness.....(30) 3. Controllable hygienic factors.....(50)		
†VI. COUNTERACTING FACTORS 100		
1. Unfavorable social environment..(15) 2. Depressing professional relations..(15) 3. Deleterious hygienic or affective conditions.....(25) 4. Temporary physical disability....(20) 5. Inferiority of pupils.....(25)		
Total score		Perfect score 1000

*See definitive terms, reverse side.

†Section VI seeks to correct error arising from handicaps against which the teacher may be working.

FIG. 20. — Card for Scoring Teacher's Efficiency.

DEFINITIVE TERMS

- I.
 1. Personal attractiveness, cleanliness, neatness, dress.
 2. Posture, dignity, grace, self-command, composure.
 3. Physical vigor, wholesomeness, buoyancy, hygienity.
 4. Rational behavior, freedom from impulsiveness and irascibility.
 5. Moral character, spirit of reverence, tendency toward social service.
 6. Temperament, attitude toward pupils, co-operative tendencies, open-mindedness.
 7. Driving power, incisiveness, inventiveness.
- II.
 1. Command of subject-matter, stock of general information, breadth, acquaintance with current happenings.
 2. Specialized scholarship, adaptedness to position.
 3. Special studies in education and training in teaching, experience under competent supervision.
 4. Clearness, fluency, accuracy.
 5. Scholarship standards, conception of educational aims and values.
- III.
 1. Adaptation, sequence, correlation, rational procedure.
 2. Speed, manner, form of questions, treatment of answers.
 3. Illustration, analysis or synthesis, use of devices.
 4. Motivation, attention, cooperation, suggestion.
 5. Effectiveness, finish, definiteness and sufficiency of modification in pupils.
 6. Absence of non-essentials, completeness of utilization of time.
 7. Time, adequacy, definiteness, clearness, motivation.
- IV.
 1. Command and evaluation of knowledge materials, sensing meaning, reflective thinking, success in reaching independent conclusions.
 2. Habits of response, use of language, quality of written work, respect for proprieties in discussion.
 3. Application of knowledge to life situations.
 4. Refined permanent interests, ideals.
 5. Responsiveness to social demands, social habits.
 6. Alertness, concentration, self-activity, relevant questions, criticism.
 7. Study, reading, speaking, writing, handicrafts, fine arts.
- V.
 1. Seating of pupils, convenience of furniture and equipment.
 2. Interior furnishings, decorations.
 3. Cleanliness, light, temperature, ventilation.
- VI.
 1. Low standards of life in the community, bad home conditions.
 2. Poor supervision, annoying colleagues, insufficient salary, poor equipment.
 3. Unfit schoolroom, bad weather conditions, distractions.
 4. Indisposition, exhaustion, personal injury.
 5. Subnormality, poor previous teaching, under-nourishment, insufficiency or unfitness of clothing.

intendent should be the best informed man in the community on the business side of all public enterprises. Instead of being, as he is popularly supposed to be, a kind of idealistic dreamer, in favor of the expenditure of public money for anything that sounds like reform or progress, without regard to what the city can afford, he should be in all matters of public business one of the wisest and most hard headed men in the community. This, President Thomas thinks, is the road to trustworthy and trusted leadership in public education. If school administration is ever to be put on a basis that will be scientific from the professional standpoint and at the same time will command the respect of business men, much more attention must be devoted to school accounting. As soon as village principals who are interested in education as a science become numerous enough comparisons will become common, standards will be set, and village school administration will rapidly advance to a professional basis. As a matter of fact a good many such studies of village schools are already being made, as will appear from the list of references at the close of this chapter.

Financial Records Reveal the Principal's Policy. — From instructional statistics the principal learns accurately, so far as is measurable, what the products of his business are. The financial accounts show what the expenditures have been. In small schools it is customary for these accounts to be kept by the treasurer and the clerk in blank books purchased for the purpose or furnished by the state department. As a rule the principal seldom or never sees these records; in fact in most cases it does not occur to him that they are any of his concern. But they are. If school accounting had as its only purpose that of keeping tab on the officials in order

to see that they handled the school funds honestly, such accounts might not be of much interest to the principal. But they have two other uses. They show, for instance, the educational policy of the school. They also reveal the efficiency with which the work is being done.

This may be illustrated by the oft quoted sentences of Superintendent Spaulding, then of Newton, Mass., in his paper before the Department of Superintendence in 1913: "Of every dollar so expended (*i.e.* for secondary instruction), 0.3 of one cent goes for Greek, while 15.6 cents go for English. We buy 0.4 of a cent's worth of instruction in vocal music while buying 12.1 cents' worth of instruction in mathematics. We think it best — or are we doing it without thinking? — to buy 7 cents' worth of French for every 3 cents' worth of German; and we are buying no Spanish at all. We are spending 5.1 cents for instruction in household arts — in the preparation of girls for homemaking — to 6.1 cents for instruction in commercial branches — in preparation of girls and boys for clerical and business service." One reads between the lines that Superintendent Spaulding was not entirely satisfied with this policy, but preferred instead a policy that would spend relatively more for Spanish and household arts. It suggests, too, a rather effective way in which the principal might argue his policy before the board.

The scientific uses of financial records can be illustrated as follows: cities vary greatly as to expenditure per pupil-year. There is a presumption that a town spending \$98.51 per pupil in average daily attendance for one year is furnishing better facilities and getting better results than one expending \$31.66. Gradually as records are more carefully kept and

more diligently studied the cost per pupil-year will tend to become standardized. Then schools whose expenditures are similar will be able, by comparing instructional statistics also, to judge their relative efficiency. In somewhat the same way, if the accounting furnished the data, the different rooms in the same village school could be compared and also the various departments of the high school. And these things are but samples of many ways in which school accounting sufficiently detailed so that unit costs of various kinds can be computed will help to measure efficiency.

The Principal as Clerk of the Board. --- It is because school accounting can be made to serve these two purposes that the principal should have a hand in it; and by the way, he can put these purposes forward as an argument for getting it into his hands. For, as a matter of fact, the principal should himself be clerk of the board. The small stipend universally paid to the clerk is practically wasted and should be saved or diverted to the school. The principal can afford, if necessary, to do the work of the clerk without pay in order to effect the change. He will not find it an onerous addition to his duties, and to have the clerk's accounts in his own office will add to his professional efficiency and the effectiveness of his work. The right thing to do, however, is to make the clerk's stipend pay for clerical and stenographical assistance in the principal's office. It will not, of course, employ an assistant on full time, but some part time arrangement could usually be worked out by combining these clerical duties with the other duties of some member of the staff. School boards, moreover, should face the fact that the principal needs relief from some of the detailed routine work of his office if he is to serve the community as a teacher and

educational leader. The clerk's salary should be made to help solve this problem. This arrangement is already in use in many progressive schools.

Blanks from the State Department. — The devising and furnishing of forms and of blanks for school accounting is a matter that should be worked out by state departments and has already been undertaken by some of them. The easiest way to follow the advice given in this chapter ought to be merely to use the blanks furnished by the state superintendents. The financial record books furnished in blank by state departments have as a rule been quite inadequate to the requirements of scientific accounting.¹ First, they do not show when the schooling paid for is received. In other words, it is difficult or impossible to compute from them the precise expense of any given year's school. This indefiniteness arises from two facts: (1) the date recorded is that of the transaction (not that when the expense was incurred); (2) there is no clear distinction between maintenance (*i.e.* repairs, replacements, etc.) and capital outlay. The latter is an investment, of course, in future, not current, education. Secondly, they do not distinguish between the purposes for which the expenditure was made, such as administration, supervision, instruction, operation, maintenance, and permanent improvement. It is therefore impossible to collect accurate statistics on these phases of education. Thirdly, they do not provide the necessary data for computing unit costs. Some principals desire to report the cost of each grade in the elementary school and each subject in the high school. The advance of educational science depends upon such com-

¹ See Hutchinson's *School Costs and School Accounting*. Published by Columbia University.

parisons. But the records in common use neither show unit costs nor furnish data for computing them.

The Usual Warrant Registers. — Suitable ledgers for registering receipts and expenditures should provide separate columns for the following sorts or purposes of expenditures: general control, instruction, operation of plant, maintenance of plant, auxiliary agencies, capital outlay, and current debt. Each of these should be subdivided. Several commercial firms make and sell such ledgers. The John C. Moore Corporation, 69-71 Stone Street, Rochester, N. Y., furnishes one. Their register enters all items on a single long page ruled vertically into columns for the various purposes and subpurposes just mentioned. C. F. Williams and Son, 36 Beaver Street, Albany, N. Y., furnish another. Theirs is a loose leaf ledger with separate pages devoted to the several purposes. These both have the approval of the United States Bureau of Education, and information will be furnished upon request.

These blanks, however, have two objectionable features for use in small schools. The first is that there are more subdivisions than are really necessary for a small system. This makes them needlessly complicated, expensive, and unwieldy. This, however, is not a serious objection. The second objection is that in a small system certain expenditures would have to be distributed among the several columns. For example, the principal's salary would have to be entered partly in the general control column and partly in the instruction column, and the entry under the latter would have to be subdivided between supervision and teaching. There is no easy provision for this distribution.

A more fundamental criticism of these authorized blanks

CLERKS' FINANCIAL RECORD

[illegible]

Page 1 of the Clerk's Financial Record has the following explanatory note:

This register is designed to serve the double purpose of (1) recording cash disbursements and (2) estimating current expenses. The several subdivisions or "pages" may be arranged on one wide page of a record book or may be spread to extend over two adjacent left-and-right pages. In order to insure accurate results the following instructions must be observed:

(a) All disbursements involved in the year's expenses must be listed in the year's record, even though actual payment (*i.e.* date of warrant) falls outside the year.

(b) The total amount of the warrant will always be set down in the first column following the entry "to whom issued." The amount will

[illegible][illegible]

school and each subject in the high school. The computation for which this blank is available can be made in greater or less detail as the principal may desire. The enterprise of computing unit costs is in harmony with the present pedagogical quest for standards of measurements. Just as the educational measurements movement aims to measure the products of the education factory, so financial measurements would measure its costs. The purpose in computing such unit costs is to furnish data for comparing expenditures for different high school subjects and elementary departments, and for comparing expenditures for each of these items with like expenditures of other schools. Eventually scientific standards for such expenditures will emerge. In short, both financial and instructional statistics will, as educational administration grows more scientific, become increasingly indispensable in engineering the policy of one's school. This use will focus in the annual budget and the annual report to the public. A few words need to be said about each of these.

Budget Making. — Professor Baker quotes from Mr. Mason, secretary-treasurer of the St. Louis Board of Education, the following definition: "A budget is a financial statement, covering a fiscal year in advance, showing the anticipated revenue and appropriations of a body having control of the distribution of public funds." In very few small towns is a school budget prepared in any systematic fashion. Professor Baker insinuates that the majority of school board members do not so much as know what the word budget means. As a rule they make a lump estimate about equal to the amount expended the year before, perhaps a little larger or a little smaller as they may guess will be needed, and levy a tax that they think will produce the amount. But this is poor

disapproves of his policy; for the budget is the financial expression of the policy. The more clearly he conceives his policy the more definitely he will desire to express it in dollars and cents; and the more definitely he figures it out in dollars and cents the more clearly he will himself conceive it. And the more definitely he conceives his policy, the reasons for it and the cost of it, the more successful he will be in convincing his board and the public that it ought to be carried out.

Budgetary Standards. Strayer¹ recommends the following proportion of appropriation for the various items in the budget.

	PER CENT OF TOTAL		PER CENT OF TOTAL
Teaching and supervision from	70	to	75
Supervision alone	7	to	10
Teaching alone	60	to	68
Janitors' salaries	5	to	7
Textbooks and supplies	4	to	6
Fuel	5	to	7
Repairs	3	to	5

However, he recommends that "cities spending a relatively large amount per pupil should spend a relatively larger proportion for teaching and supervision, and for textbooks and supplies; while the proportion spent for fuel, repairs, and janitors' salaries should increase much more slowly." It would seem that this ought to be constructed in terms commensurate with the clerk's register.

These figures may be accepted tentatively as a budgetary standard for village schools, though no one knows what the average practice is nor what the standards ought to be. The first could be ascertained approximately for any given section by tabulating such statistics as are available from a consider-

¹ *City School Expenditures*, p. 79.

able number of typical towns. The second can be determined only by a comparative study of unit costs and educational results in a large number of schools where both financial and instructional statistics have been intelligently kept for a considerable time. In other words, scientific standards of expenditures wait upon the growth of the professional attitude of principals pleaded for in this chapter. It is important that village boards be trained to make their budgets with such a table as this before them, apportioning amounts to each purpose on the basis of these percentages. The desirability of working out such tables for village schools is therefore obvious. A considerable beginning has been made along this line (see references); but this still remains a profitable field for departments of education in universities, colleges, and normal schools that serve village constituencies.

Classification of Financial Records. — The following outline of necessary financial records is submitted:

Financial Records

- I. Receipts, itemized as to sources.
- II. Expenditures.
 - 1. Papers for auditor's inspection, *i.e.*, orders, bills, receipts, checks, etc. conveniently filed.¹
 - 2. Clerk's Financial Record (Fig. 22).
 - 3. Unit Costs Register, if desired (Fig. 23).
- III. Property Invoice, showing:
 - 1. Plant.
 - 2. Equipment.
 - 3. Supplies.
- IV. Budget, itemized as per clerk's register.

¹ The inexperienced principal will find in almost any village business men who can help him devise these forms. For invoicing supplies Strayer and Engelhardt furnish a very useful blank book.

The Principal's Annual Report to the Public. — If the principal is to succeed in developing his policy he must have the backing and support of the people. To them his arguments must, accordingly, be presented; and they will consist, in part at least, of the facts revealed by his statistical and instructional records. His problem is how these facts and their bearing on his plans can be presented to the public in a way that will create public opinion.

It is customary for city superintendents to get out annual reports. This is a practice that might be followed to advantage by the village principal, though unless he can succeed better than the average city superintendent does in getting them read by the public it is hardly worth while. It is well for the board to adopt the report and put it out as the report of the board of education. It must not be too long; it should contain the most salient facts, both financial and instructional; and they should be interpreted so that the reader will see the conclusion to which they point. The pages should not be solid blocks of printed matter — few people will read that; the facts should instead be presented as much as possible in graphic form. Brinton's *Graphic Methods for Presenting Facts*¹ is a book full of valuable suggestions on this subject.

There are no established standards as to just what should be included in the report. The facts as to attendance, progress, health, and expenditures will probably appeal to the principal as most significant; the aspects or relations of these facts which he chooses to display will depend somewhat upon his own interests, policy, and ingenuity. It might be well to report how much the district spends for schools. Compar-

¹ The book is rather expensive, and the board should be induced to purchase it. It is published by The Engineering Magazine Company, New York City

isons with other districts will often be suggestive (Fig. 24). The purposes for which the school board spends the district's money is also a matter that lends itself very readily to graphic representation (Fig. 25). Costs can be computed for various units (Figs. 26, 27), and readily displayed. Instructional data make equally interesting graphs of which the age grade

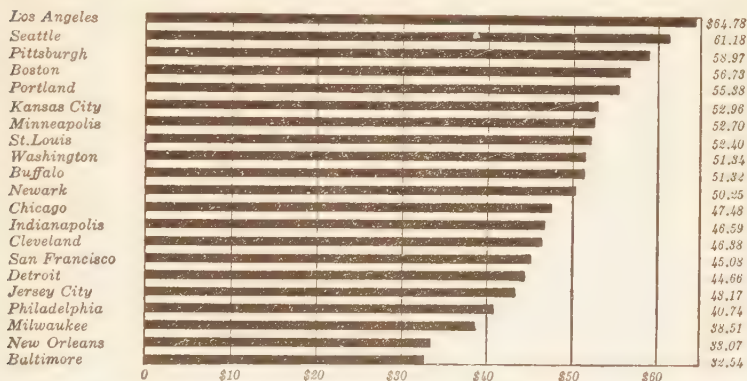


FIG. 24. — Per Pupil-year Expense of Maintenance and Operation in Twenty Cities (from the *Boston Survey*, 1916, p. 156).

distributions have been longest in use (Figs. 28, 29, 30). The progress of pupils can also be reported graphically. It is especially desirable to graph the findings of the standard tests (Fig. 31); and the principal's interest in this will increase as he studies the tests and the surveys. The Cleveland Survey is particularly suggestive along this line (see "Measuring the Work of the Public Schools"). From the surveys, from the reports of city superintendents, and from the bulletin referred to at the beginning of this chapter the resourceful principal will derive many suggestions as to what facts would interest his patrons in the furtherance of his policy (Figs. 32, 33). There

are a great many interesting facts, especially those pertaining to extra-curricular activities, that can best be presented by pictures.

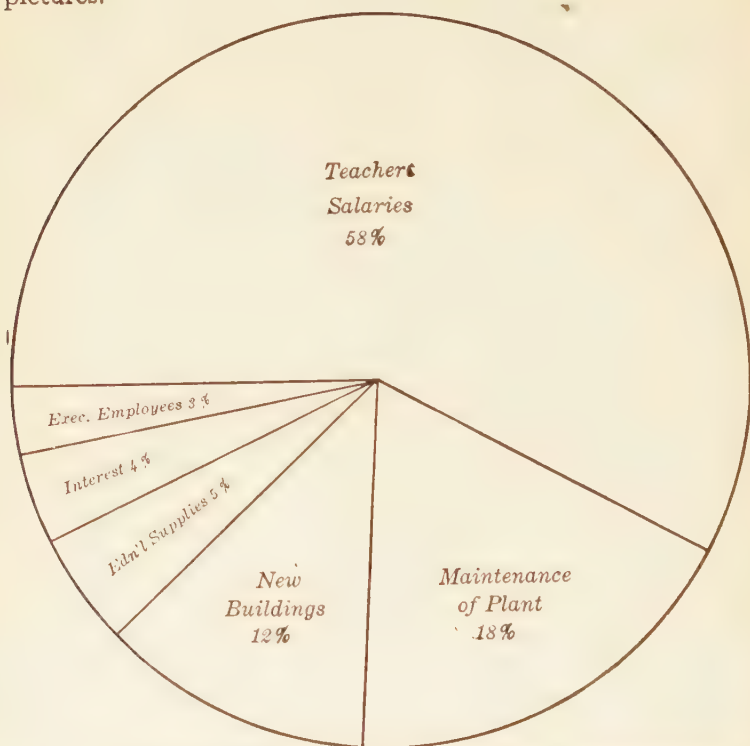


FIG. 25. — What Your School Board Does with Your Dollar (Adapted from the Rockford, Ill., *Survey*, 1915-16).

These reports can be mailed to patrons, handed out to the older pupils, or distributed at parent-teacher meetings. It is not necessary, however, to limit the use of printer's ink to the annual report. The material it contains, and other

material as well, can be published, bit by bit, in the local weekly. The editor will accept it with a sigh of relief — it fills up his space! A presentation of facts and policies,

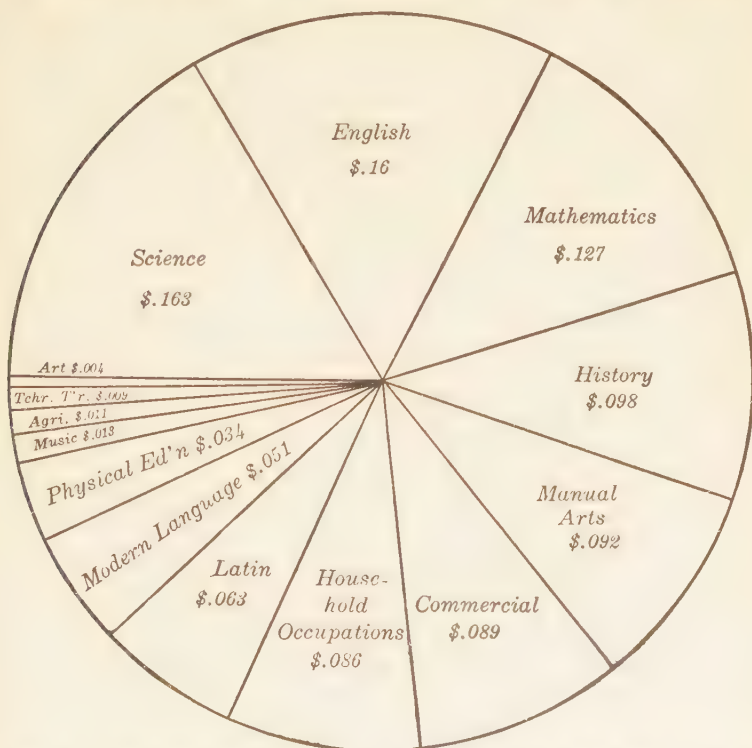


FIG. 26. — What the High School Dollar Buys (Based on a study of ten towns in South Dakota See *Educational Administration and Supervision*, for November, 1918, p. 454).

graphically illustrated, might well be worked into the commencement program. In many places the house would be filled if an extra evening were devoted principally to it.



FIG. 27. — Cost of High School Instruction per Pupil-hour in Ten South Dakota Towns.

AGE AND GRADE DISTRIBUTION TABLE
(Filled out for the schools of Carrington, N. D., by Supt. A. L. Schafer)

GRADE													
AGE	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII	Total
6	17	1											18
7	6	22	0										28
8	4	7	14	1									26
9		2	4	19	2								27
10			6	8	12	1							26
11				6	15	16	1						37
12				1	7	12	9	1					30
13					6	4	10	14					33
14						1	7	12					18
15							4	6					9
16							1	0					1
17								1					1
18													
19													
Total	27	32	23	34	41	34	32	31					254

FIG. 28. — Age-Grade Table.

Indeed the commencement program could profitably and successfully be extended over several evenings, as is the custom at small colleges, thus affording an opportunity to present to the public this and other valuable material.

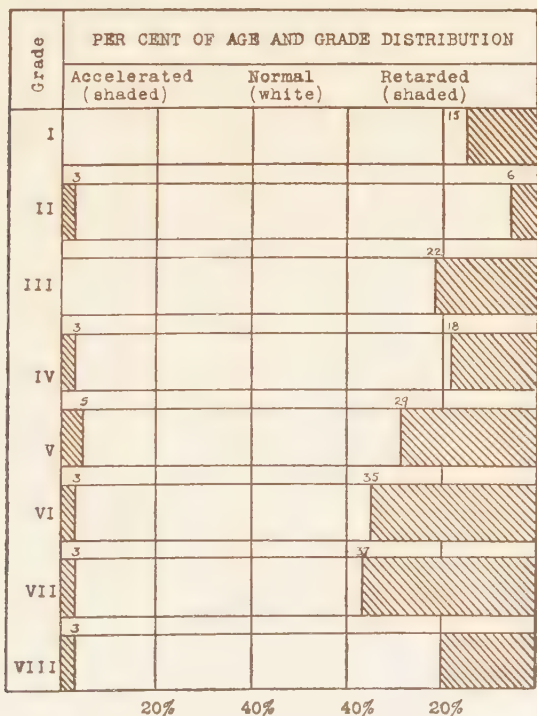


FIG. 29. — Age-Grade Table (Same data as in Fig. 28).

Educational Surveys. — As is well known, no doubt, to the reader numerous cities have conducted educational surveys during the past ten years. The object has been to find out, by a systematic, scientific inquiry, what the actual educa-

AGE-GRADE TABLE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

School _____

GRADE SECTION		KINDERGARTEN			FIRST GRADE			SECOND GRADE			THIRD GRADE					
Age	Age period includes all children whose ages run from	NORMAL AGE LIMITS FOR ENTRANCE INTO EACH GRADE												NORMAL AGE LIMIT		
		4 yrs. 9 mos. to 5 yrs. 9 mos.	5 yrs. 3 mos. to 6 yrs. 3 mos.	5 yrs. 9 mos. to 6 yrs. 9 mos.	6 yrs. 3 mos. to 7 yrs. 3 mos.	6 yrs. 9 mos. to 7 yrs. 9 mos.	7 yrs. 3 mos. to 8 yrs. 3 mos.	7 yrs. 9 mos. to 8 yrs. 9 mos.	8 yrs. 3 mos. to 9 yrs. 3 mos.	8 yrs. 9 mos. to 9 yrs. 9 mos.	9 yrs. 3 mos. to 10 yrs. 3 mos.	9 yrs. 9 mos. to 10 yrs. 9 mos.	10 yrs. 3 mos. to 11 yrs. 3 mos.	10 yrs. 9 mos. to 11 yrs. 9 mos.	11 yrs. 3 mos. to 12 yrs. 3 mos.	
		B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T	B G T		
4½ yrs.	4 yrs. 3 mos. to 4 yrs. 9 mos.															
5 yrs.	4 yrs. 9 mos. to 5 yrs. 3 mos.															
5½ yrs.	5 yrs. 3 mos. to 5 yrs. 9 mos.															
6 yrs.	5 yrs. 9 mos. to 6 yrs. 3 mos.															
6½ yrs.	6 yrs. 3 mos. to 6 yrs. 9 mos.															
7 yrs.	6 yrs. 9 mos. to 7 yrs. 3 mos.															
7½ yrs.	7 yrs. 3 mos. to 7 yrs. 9 mos.															
8 yrs.	7 yrs. 9 mos. to 8 yrs. 3 mos.															
8½ yrs.	8 yrs. 3 mos. to 8 yrs. 9 mos.															
9 yrs.	8 yrs. 9 mos. to 9 yrs. 3 mos.															
9½ yrs.	9 yrs. 3 mos. to 9 yrs. 9 mos.															
10 yrs.	9 yrs. 9 mos. to 10 yrs. 3 mos.															
10½ yrs.	10 yrs. 3 mos. to 10 yrs. 9 mos.															
11 yrs.	10 yrs. 9 mos. to 11 yrs. 3 mos.															

11 yrs. 3 mos. to 11 yrs. 9 mos.														
Total Number														
Number of normal age children														
Number of over-age children														
Number of under-age children														
Per cent of children of normal age														
Per cent of children over age														
Per cent of children under age														

STRAYER-ENGELHARDT SCHOOL RECORD CARD SERIES—C. F. WILLIAMS & SON, INC., ALBANY, N. Y.

FIG. 30. — The Strayer-Engelhardt

Ages Computed* as of Sept 1, 19...

[illegible]

*Use Strayer-Engelhardt Age-Computation Table—C. P. WILLIAMS & SON, INC.

Age-Grade Distribution Blank.

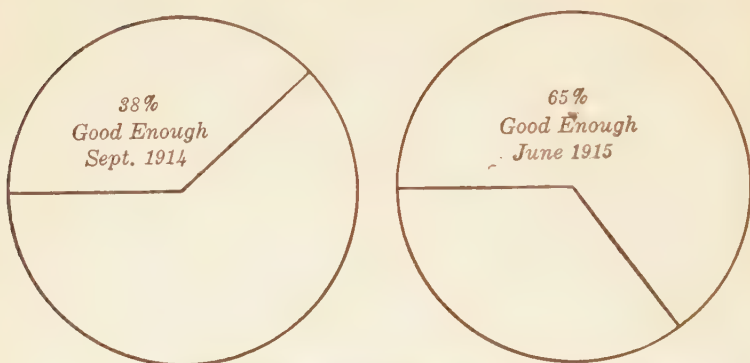


FIG. 31. — Improvement in Handwriting (from the Rockford Survey).

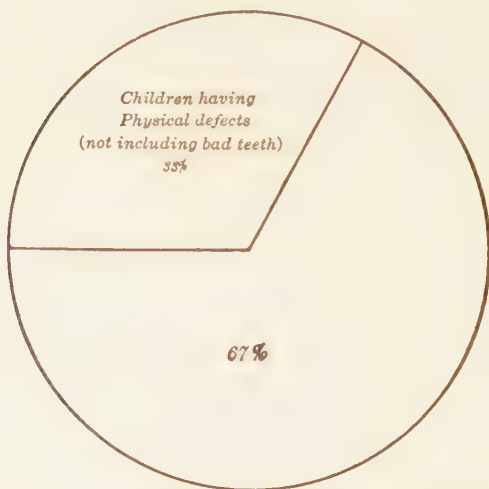


FIG. 32. — Showing Health Conditions (Rockford Survey).

tional needs of the community are, and with what efficiency and success the schools are actually performing their work. These surveys have been given wide publicity, both locally

in the daily press, and generally through books and periodicals. The result has been to stimulate local interest in the schools, and to furnish data on the basis of which contributions have

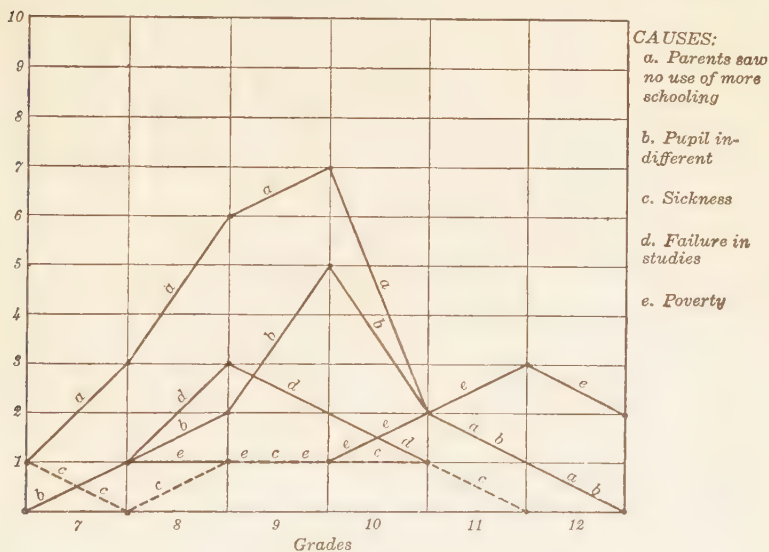


FIG. 33. — Withdrawals by Grades, and Causes.

been made to the cause of education. Some beginnings have been made in surveying the schools of villages and rural communities. Any principal who can secure an educational survey of his own district will set a good example, for a great deal of such work ought to be done in the next few years; and he will add greatly to his patrons' intelligent interest in their schools.

It is hardly practicable to make such a survey without outside help. The principal who petitions his nearest normal school, or some good college, or his state university, or all

three, for expert assistance will probably find them anxious to participate, especially if the board shows a reasonable liberality in footing the bills. It is unnecessary to furnish any suggestions here for such a survey, as the experts who come to the local principal's assistance will know how to proceed. However, an informal survey by local workers may prove better than no survey at all, and may often pave the way for a really expert survey. If the principal wishes to undertake such a survey we recommend that he first make a study of some such survey as the Cleveland survey. To this end he should first procure Ayres' summary volume of the Cleveland School Survey. This book costs fifty cents and can be had from the Cleveland Foundation, Cleveland, Ohio, or from the Russell Sage Foundation, New York City. This little book gives a general description of the Survey. From it one can derive a fairly good idea of what a school survey ought to cover. By its guidance he can, if he has some ingenuity, outline a fairly comprehensive survey program. It contains a list of all the volumes published in connection with the Cleveland Survey, from which list the principal can select such as he thinks will interest him. Most of them cost only a quarter; and every educator should as a matter of professional information familiarize himself with this and other surveys, if he has not already done so.

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See comments in last paragraph of this chapter.
- AYRES, LEONARD P. *Child Accounting in the Public Schools*.
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A good discussion of the small town problems.

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A study of a dozen village schools, carried on by the principals themselves, under the leadership of a near-by college — exactly the sort of work that ought to be done everywhere. An exceedingly suggestive article.

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PART V
MISCELLANEOUS



CHAPTER XVI

GETTING A GOOD START

THERE are many familiar old epigrams that express the importance of getting a good start. The secret of making a success of the first day of school is to have every detail planned in advance so that no unforeseen emergency will arise. The following suggestions are offered to aid the inexperienced principal in doing this.

Arrive Early. — When one is called to the principalship of a new school it is important that he should, if possible, appear upon the scene several weeks before school begins. He will need plenty of time to find a suitable house, and to get his family thoroughly settled. If he has no family, it is important that he take time enough to make sure that he has a suitable place to room and board. The success of principal or teachers often hinges on the influence of the boarding place. Other relations need to be chosen with only less care, namely his bank, his church, and his trading places. There are always circumstances to be considered, and no two small towns are alike. The more thoroughly the new principal knows the local situation the less liable he is to make mistakes in these delicate matters. And the more agreeable personal acquaintances the principal can form in advance of the opening of school, the better. They will all prove assets to him. If the big boys get acquainted with the principal before school

begins, and become settled in the conviction that he is a good fellow, the battle is half won in advance. Likewise if the principal has met the patrons and established pleasant relations with them in advance, they will stand by him later in the unpleasant situations incident to school discipline.

Providing Necessary New Equipment. — The new principal should study the plant thoroughly and familiarize himself with its every detail. There are several objects in this. One is that he may think out the best plans for using it. Every detail of school work is determined in some measure by the building and furniture. The work of every grade from kindergarten to the senior class in high school will depend upon the material equipment; so will every department of work, whether it be mathematics or domestic science, marching of classes, or athletics. No detail of this adjustment of work to plant should escape the principal; no surprises should arise to disconcert him after school work begins. As far as is practical the principal should familiarize himself with school records, and, if he is in a new state, with school laws and curriculum requirements. The amount of time that can profitably be devoted to this work is obviously large.

The new principal will do well to make up his mind in advance to use what is furnished him to the best possible advantage. School boards will not as a rule take kindly to requests by the new principal for repairs, readjustments, and new materials. Nothing ought to be more valuable than the suggestions of a new, professionally-minded principal. Habit accustoms one to almost any glaring defect in the system. New principals and also members of the teaching staff, before they get into the local ruts themselves, see these defects. The principal himself should, as he grows older,

and especially after he has held a position for some time, maintain a hospitable mind toward the suggestions of new teachers. The refusal of a principal to take this attitude is evidence that fossilization has set in. The same is true of the board. Nevertheless such a refusal on the part of his board is exactly what the new principal must be prepared to expect.

While, therefore, it is his professional duty to secure improvements he must be exceedingly cautious and tactful in urging them at the very beginning. It is usually better to begin with approximately the equipment furnished and secure readjustments later. In other words, the new principal will begin formulating his policy during the weeks prior to the opening of school, but he must not rush his policy indiscreetly. If, however, in his study of conditions as they existed in the past, he finds some outstanding weakness, the new principal must come forth with constructive criticism and with a firm conviction that the change is absolutely necessary. He will not be accused of faultfinding if his board can be made to realize that he has properly diagnosed the situation, nor will they be loath as a rule to have the remedy applied.

The beginning of school work is often hindered through lack of supplies. We recently heard of a village school where the authorities hesitated about ordering textbooks until school began, for fear of having extra copies left on hand. When school assembled the books were ordered, but unusual market conditions delayed delivery, with the result that the school lacked some much needed texts for two months. Such a situation might have been prevented. The principal might, by a little extra effort, have found out exactly what was

needed a month before school opened. Had he presented evidence showing that he knew what he was about the board would undoubtedly have permitted him to place the order. The lack of other supplies is just as embarrassing as the lack of textbooks, and just as liable to occur unless the principal is forehanded and thoroughgoing.

The principal should be present at one board meeting at least before school begins, and more if school business requires. It is well for the principal to draw up a few brief regulations defining the duties of the principal, teachers, pupils, and janitors, and have them approved by the board so that he will have these as a working basis. Suggestions for such rules may be gleaned from Chapter IV.

Getting Teachers Started. — While the teachers will need a good deal less time than the principal to make their preliminary adjustments, they must not be allowed to postpone their arrivals till the last minute. They should arrive about the middle of the week before school opens, and the principal should write them to that effect, courteously but authoritatively. It will be well for him to compile a list of available boarding and rooming places to suggest to teachers upon their arrival. Precautions should be taken to prevent teachers getting into the wrong homes. When new teachers arrive, the wise principal will meet them at the station and render them such kindly assistance as he can in getting settled.

The first teachers' meeting (held preferably the Saturday previous to the opening of school) should concern itself with only those things absolutely necessary for the opening of school. The taking up of plans for the year should be left for a few days, as there is such a mass of this material that new teachers are easily confused if confronted with everything the

first meeting. The following items are appropriate for consideration at the first meeting:

1. Assignment of teachers.
2. Certification of teachers (if same was not attended to at time of employment).
3. Course of study.
4. Attendance and scholarship records.
5. Handling of textbooks (if free texts are used).
6. Enrollment of pupils.
7. Arrangements for hall duty, with teachers assigned to same in rotation.
8. Making out of reports.

In small schools it is desirable to hold an informal personal interview with each teacher in order to clear up whatever uncertainties there may be in her mind as to what is expected of her. Each teacher should, before school begins, become acquainted with her schoolroom, its appurtenances and furnishings, and how she is to use them. She should definitely understand her assignment of work, familiarize herself with the register and the course of study, plan thoroughly her first day's work, and arrange a tentative program. If she does not understand how to do these things, the principal should not fail to give the situation his attention. The problem of getting her school organized and the work properly under way on the first day of school may also require the principal's oversight. Neglect here will cost the principal dearly later on.

It is a very good and often quite necessary plan for the principal to compile, before school begins, a list of townspeople who have places where pupils may work for their board, and so prepare himself to assist such pupils to find em-

ployment. If there is a good demand for such work, it might be possible to increase the enrollment by a little advertising.

The First Day of School. — The practice is to be condemned of wasting most of the first day of school by attending to practically nothing but enrollment. In some places each high school pupil is required to appear at the schoolhouse on Friday and Saturday, consult with his principal or adviser, make out his schedule of study, and secure textbooks and assignments. This is entirely commendable, because it enables the high school to begin business at nine o'clock Monday morning and get in a full day's work. Grade teachers should prepare a tentative program for the first day and see that every class does some serious work in practically every subject. If teachers do not know how to do this, the principal should help them to prepare and carry through their first day's program.

At the close of the first day there will usually be occasion for personal conferences with individual teachers.

CHAPTER XVII

SUMMARY OF THE TECHNIQUE OF TEACHING

The Significance of Technique. — As was stated in Chapter V, an important part of the principal's task is the supervision of teachers. In order to do this work efficiently the principal must himself be master of the technique of teaching. The use in this connection of the word technique is intended to suggest what many young principals do not realize; namely, that there is a right and a wrong way to handle these matters, and that the how of doing them is just as definitely settled as the how of performing an appendicitis operation, for instance. As a young machinist said about the care and use of motor cars: "You don't exchange ideas; you've got to know!" To take this attitude toward the technique of teaching is the first step in a professional career. It was not the original intention of the authors to discuss this technique. The study of administration should presuppose it. It is presumed that any person who is employed as principal has already mastered the technique of teaching. Unfortunately, however, such is not always the case. It seems desirable, therefore, for the sake of inexperienced and untrained principals, to include a short chapter on the subject. Space permits, however, but a brief outline treatment. It is absolutely necessary that the untrained principal secure the best books recommended in the References and master them as thoroughly as he expects

his fifth graders to master the multiplication table. Not otherwise can he expect to become a professional supervisor.

There are three phases of her work in which the teacher is entitled to expert supervision, and of which the principal must, therefore, be master. These are (1) the technique of classroom management, (2) the technique of class instruction, and (3) the technique of school discipline.

A. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT¹

Classroom management is the term used in pedagogy to include the technique of managing a schoolroom. Strictly speaking, it does not cover the conduct of the recitation. The process of instruction is a separate science.

There are two reasons why the teacher should be skillful in this phase of her work. The first is economy of time. If the classroom is badly managed, the resulting disorder will render instruction difficult, and vice versa. Secondly, the management of the school is itself a part of the pupil's education. Orderly, coöperative, efficient schools make orderly, helpful, efficient citizens, and vice versa. These ends should be held clearly in mind.

Items to Be Habituated. - Certain schoolroom activities are purely mechanical, and it is the teacher's duty to reduce them to pupil-habits as soon as possible. The following may be enumerated: passing of lines (*i.e.* in or out of the schoolhouse, to and from recitation benches or blackboards, and during fire drills), distributing and collecting wraps, books, and materials, arranging books and materials in desks, keeping the classroom tidy, leaving the room, or securing neat written work.

¹ This section is virtually a summary of Bagley's *Classroom Management*.

All these involve the law of habit building, which may be stated in four rules: (1) At the very start, force vigorously upon the pupils' attention exactly what it is you want them to do; (2) make the first attempt pleasurable (by explaining or praising); (3) repeat the process often, always making the children try to improve; and (4) permit absolutely no exceptions.

A teacher is rightly judged, in part at least, by the orderliness with which these things are done. She must plan very carefully exactly how she wants these exercises carried out. Always have pupils occupy the same recitation seats and places at the blackboard. Every desk, especially in the lower grades, should be arranged like every other, the plan devised by the teacher, to prevent material such as pencils and paint boxes being dropped on the floor, and to enable children to find things without looking. Older children may be allowed to devise an arrangement provided it is orderly. There should be as little written work as possible, and teachers should look over practically all of it. Insist on children cleaning their shoes before coming in. Pencil sharpeners save dirt and time. Insist on pencils being sharpened before exercises begin. In lower grades have them taken up and passed out by monitors and sharpened meantime. The chief secret of getting neat written work is skill in specifying exactly what is wrong with a pupil's writing. Freeman's analysis (see Chapter VIII, p. 106) is useful in this connection.

It is important for the teacher to get a good start. To do so she should visit her schoolroom in advance and take note of every detail. She should familiarize herself with the register and the course of study, and consult with the principal. Before school begins she should see that blackboards are clean,

and that all needed materials are on hand. Then carefully plan the first day's work in detail. Plan also the passing of lines and all other mechanics. On the first morning be on hand early and see that everything is in readiness. Seat the children and dispose of wraps according to prearranged plan. Take the children's names. Assign seat work to the older classes, and proceed with recitations. Just before recess drill on the passing of lines. Monitors may be appointed. Then go through the day's work.

The Daily Program. — It is obviously very important to have a good daily program. Program construction naturally has three phases: process, principles, and product.

The *process* is as follows: (1) set down a list of subjects to be taught, (2) indicate at the left the number of classes in each, and (3) at the right the number of minutes each class should have. (4) This carried out further to the right will indicate the total minutes to each subject, which (5) may be totaled at the bottom of the column. The total will exceed the number of minutes in the school day (except in rooms having but one class). (6) Then by erasures and rearrangement (*a*) consolidate classes, (*b*) combine subjects, and (*c*) alternate classes, until by (7) cutting down somewhat the length of time for each class you (8) get a new column of minutes per subject that total the number of minutes in the school day. (9) Then assign your recitations to their place in the schedule, (10) changing and readjusting until part fits part in a completed program. Finally (11) program study periods carefully.

The following *principles* are to be observed.

1. The standard lengths of recitation periods are as follows: 5-7 years, 15 minutes; 7-10 years, 20 minutes; 10-12 years, 20 minutes; 12-15 years, 30 minutes; 15-18 years, 40 minutes.

2. About ten o'clock is the best part of the day, about two the next best; after three o'clock is the poorest part of the day, after eleven-thirty is next to the poorest.

3. The hardest subjects should be given the best parts of the day; the easiest, the poorest.

4. Two hard, or "fundamental," subjects (*i.e.* the three R's, including language and spelling) should not come together.

5. If the program is crowded, slight anything but fundamentals.

6. Writing or drawing should not follow an intermission.

7. Young children should recite often, especially in reading.

8. The younger classes should recite first. They should be given first consideration.

9. Study periods should be scheduled as carefully as recitations.

The *product* of program construction, *i.e.* the finished program, will, of course, differ in different schools.

Attendance. — The teacher should know the state law regarding attendance. She should be required to report regularly to the principal. The consequences of tardiness must not be more disagreeable than the consequences of a half day's absence. Prizes and immunities from school work are poor incentives to regular and punctual attendance, nor should grades be arbitrarily penalized as punishment. School spirit or rivalry with other schools or rooms is sometimes an effective incentive. The seriousness with which the teacher discountenances delinquent attendance is very important. Communities differ so much in their sentiment regarding school attendance that general rules are hardly possible. If written excuses from home are required, great care must be

taken to prevent forgeries. Insistence on attendance is overdone when children come to school sick.

School Hygiene. — Certain rules of hygiene are to be observed. Children should be seated in seats and desks that fit them. If such furniture is adjustable the janitors should assist teachers in the adjustment. Pupils should be put in seats high enough so their feet will rest naturally on the floor.

If necessary blocks of lumber should be laid on the floor on which to rest the feet. The desk should be just the right height to allow a comfortable position when writing, neither so low as to necessitate a stooped position, nor so high as to raise the right shoulder when writing. Lighting, ventilation, and heating have already been discussed (Chapter XIV). These are matters which the principal largely controls, except that the teacher must give careful attention to their regulation. Good posture, whether in studying, writing, or standing, must be diligently insisted upon until it becomes habitual. Children, especially young children, must not be asked to sit still too long. Teachers must always be on the lookout for children of defective hearing or vision. They should know how to give the standard ear and eye tests; they should also be able to recognize the commonest symptoms of contagious diseases and be keenly alert to their presence. They must likewise be sensitive to all individual peculiarities of children. Mental health is on the whole best conserved when children are interested and happy. Calisthenics are not the most desirable of physical exercises, but they are better than none, and teachers should see that children have some good physical exercise every day.

B. INSTRUCTION

Some Recognized Rules. — In the ordinary school the process of instruction usually divides itself into three parts: (1) the assignment, (2) the study period and (3) the recitation. A poor assignment consists in merely telling the class what the next lesson is. In a good assignment the teacher makes known definitely just what work she expects the class to do, arouses interest in that work, and furnishes such explanations as the pupils are likely to need to aid them in doing the work. How she should do this of course depends upon the subject matter and the peculiarities of the pupils. The success of the study period will depend a good deal upon the skill with which the assignment has been made. It should guide the pupil in his study. There are some subjects in which a list of questions given out in the assignment will greatly systematize the pupils' work. Children need to be taught how to study, and their study should be supervised. In the recitation the pupils should be held to strict accountability for the work assigned. Never permit a child carelessly to neglect or willfully to scamp work assigned. Be careful not to frame questions in such a way as to suggest the answer. Teachers may profitably spend considerable time and thought in preparing their questions in advance. State your question and then call upon the pupil who is to answer. This helps to keep the attention of all. Do not give the pupils a chance to anticipate who will be called upon. Refuse to repeat questions. Insist upon attention, and then you will be heard the first time. The answer is for the class as well as for the teacher; therefore it is usually considered poor pedagogy to repeat the answer. Sometimes it is necessary,

however, for clear, precise statement and emphasis. Be careful not to talk too much; the children should do a good share of the talking. Maintain a quiet manner and a well-modulated voice. Unless the teacher knows her subject thoroughly, is interested in it, and has her recitation carefully planned in advance, she cannot hope to interest her class and hold their attention.

The Various Types of Lessons. — It is customary to distinguish three different types of lessons, following the psychological distinction between the conative, affective, and cognitive phases of mind. These three types of lessons are (1) the drill lesson, (2) the appreciation lesson, and (3) the knowledge lesson. When subject matter is to be reduced to habit we have the drill lesson. Spelling, writing, the number combinations, and other things to be impressed indelibly upon the memory, are lessons of this type. The appreciation lesson involves feeling, as when the pupil is expected to enjoy a poem, admire a hero, enthuse with an ideal, marvel at something wonderful, or revere a natural law. When the pupil is to acquire some new item of information, either by being told or by discovering it for himself, we have a knowledge lesson. The teacher should decide which of these three kinds of subject matter she is about to present, and plan her lesson accordingly. In many cases the subject matter will be such as to call for a combination of two or more of these types in one recitation.

The law of habit building governs the first type of lesson: First call attention of the class definitely and forcibly to what is wanted (never to what is not wanted, because that causes confusion). Take pains to make the first attempt successful and pleasurable. Then have the class repeat and repeat,

always taking thought and pains. Children should be taught that drill without thought and pains is not drill but only a waste of time. Finally, never permit it to be done wrong.

The technique of the appreciation lesson is rather more obscure. A few rules may be set down, however. The thing to be appreciated must not be remote from the child's interests. A preadolescent boy, for instance, will be more apt to appreciate *Ivanhoe* than *Job*. The teacher herself must really appreciate. There can be no pretense here, nor should she sentimentalize. She should just appreciate; appreciation is contagious. This is the mark of a born teacher: she has a keen and genuine appreciation of the treasures of knowledge. Try to picture the thing to the imagination. Do not encourage the children to say *Oh!* and *Ah!* That will develop only hypocrisy.

Knowledge lessons are of two sorts, though the two often blend together. One is the telling lesson, the other the reasoning lesson. Whether it is the teacher or the textbook that tells, it is important that the pupil "apperceive" what is told, *i.e.* connect it with what he already knows about. This is done partly by selecting lesson material that the child will be interested in, partly by pointing out the connection between the new and old material. It is also important that the lesson be made objective. The German teachers take a great deal of pains to make things "*anschaulich*," that is, look-at-able. In other words, have the object, or something as nearly like the object as possible, plainly in sight. The teacher will be surprised how often she can do this if she really tries, and how it will rescue the children from merely parroting what the book says without understanding it.

A good deal of what has been written about the thinking or

reasoning lesson is crude, formal, and misleading. A few simple suggestions may be offered, however. The first is to inspire the pupils with the ambition to be thinkers. Some, of course, will not respond to this ideal, but the more capable will, if the teacher herself is an ambitious and capable thinker. No mere time server can accomplish this important result of teaching. The true teacher has a passion for learning. Secondly, the purpose of thinking is to solve some problem. Hence present a problem clearly and definitely to the child, and be sure that it is a problem that interests the child. Thirdly, teach the young thinker to be critical, *i.e.* to be careful about accepting his own or other people's conclusions until he is quite sure (*a*) that some consideration has not been overlooked, and (*b*) that the conclusion works. Impress him, however, with the fact that it is better to be right than to be original. Make him understand that to think soundly one needs to know and remember a great many facts. The more facts one knows the less likely one is to overlook some important item in the problem, and the more likely to find and connect the data that belong together.

Reviews will depend upon the subject matter. Drill material needs to be reviewed at gradually lengthened intervals until it is mastered. Reviews of knowledge material should aim to rearrange the subject matter. Examination questions are of two sorts: those that call for detailed facts, and those that call for some inference from what is supposed to have been learned. The preference will depend upon the subject matter. Examination questions should always be carefully prepared. Catch questions are never allowable.

Motivation. The more interested pupils are the more energy they will put into their study, and consequently the

more rapidly they will learn. To interest the children is therefore a fundamental problem of pedagogy. The difficulty is that much of what we have to teach them in preparation for maturity is naturally uninteresting to them just because they are immature; and any attempt to explain away this fact results only in soft pedagogy. However, much of what we must teach is not too mature for the children if we but take pains in arranging and presenting it; and of course we ought to make it as interesting as possible.

When the teacher thinks that her pupils will not be interested in the subject for its own sake she sometimes invents what is known as devices. A device is some activity that the children like to engage in, and in doing which they incidentally learn what the teacher wishes them to. Thus in playing the bean-bag game they practice addition. It is easy to overdo this sort of sugar coating, however, for two reasons: children often enjoy sheer drill more than teachers realize, and even if they do not specially enjoy it they should learn to work. The hard things of life are not to be regarded as electives, and the sooner children find that out the better. When devices are used in the upper grades it is desirable to select activities which are like those of life outside the school. Thus boys may build a hayrack, girls serve a meal, or the whole school give a dramatic program. Considerable language work, arithmetic, geography, and science, can be worked incidentally into such enterprises. This is called motivating the work.

An incentive is some reward that the pupil may secure (or penalty he may avoid) by doing the work that is required of him. Prizes are bad incentives; they discourage team work and appeal only to those who least need them. Immunities

from school work are also bad; they assume that pupils are right in wanting to avoid their work. Exhibition of pupils' work is liable to overemphasize written work, the only kind that can be exhibited. Pride in the good name of the school is a good incentive, and the best way to compare one's school with other schools is by the use of the standard tests. Grades and marks are gradually passing out of use. They worry the little folks to no avail; the older pupils are liable to grow a thick skin so that poor grades have no smart. It is better for the teacher to deal individually with cases of delinquency. Perhaps the highest incentive is pride in scholarship. Only a true teacher can stimulate that kind of pride; gradgrinds will rely wholly on lower incentives because they have no scholarly instincts themselves. Punishment is not out of place in extreme cases of willful or careless disregard for assignments. Pupils in preadolescence and early adolescence are often desperately in need of being followed up diligently with a sharp stick, modern pedagogy to the contrary notwithstanding; and they will usually take such medicine appreciatively if it is given in the right spirit.

C. DISCIPLINE

The Aim of Discipline. Discipline is a means, not an end. The ends are two; orderliness, so that school work may go on without interruption, and the development of character. The teacher must have clearly in mind (*a*) her ideal of an orderly school, and (*b*) the ends for which order is sought. The teacher's attitude toward the child is all important: children do not resent wise, sympathetic, even exacting, discipline. There are various preventive measures in school discipline. One is the teacher's personality. Among the

qualities requisite to personal influence are scholarship, sympathetic good humor, evident interest in pupils' welfare, courtesy, tact, justice, a pleasant voice, patience, persistence, and courage. Good teaching is a valuable preventive measure; interest is conducive to good order. The school that is permeated with a passion for learning will offer few disciplinary problems. Student activities and play have great disciplinary value for the same reason. The spirit of the school is an important item, this being due to various causes, viz.: the teacher's ideals and personality, the type of pupil leaders, and community sentiment. Loyalty to the school group and institution is one of the highest preventive incentives.

Corrective Measures. — When repressive measures are necessary it is important that pupils as well as teachers acquire a clear ideal of school deportment. The realization of the ideal is then a matter of habit building, the laws of which have been enumerated before in this chapter. When offenses occur it will pay the teacher to inquire very carefully into the causes for their occurrence. Obviously causes cannot be removed till they are understood.

As for corrective devices, Bagley specifies three requisites of good punishment: (1) it must cause the pupil a real discomfort, (2) it must appeal to the pupil as being just, (3) the pupil must associate it with the offense, not with some school exercise in connection with which the offense was committed. Miss Morehouse enumerates the following as undesirable punishments, viz.: threats, tasks, detention, taking away earned marks, personal indignities, sarcasm, and ridicule. Some of these are objectionable because they put regular school duties in the light of penalties. This tends to give the wrong

impression. Among justifiable punishments she enumerates: isolation, reports to parents, appeal to public opinion, deprivation of privileges, restitution, suspension, and, in extreme cases, expulsion. If corporal punishment is resorted to in extreme cases it should be with the following limitations: it is almost always a mistake to whip an adolescent; great care should be taken not to inflict any injury; it is usually well to have a witness present. Substitutes for corporal punishment can usually be devised, such as "a rational presentation of the nature and effects of the offense, with a parole system and a set of records which act as a check upon the tendency to repeat it, — or the appeal to the ultimate authority of the board or the community as a support to the authority of the teacher."

Punishment should almost never be administered impulsively. The self-control to stop and think is a great achievement. The attitude toward the offender is all important. The future welfare of the child, as well as of the school, should always be prominent in the teacher's mind, and the pupil should realize that fact. The doctor feels no resentment toward the patient from whom he is removing a dangerous tumor, neither should the teacher toward a child under discipline. Educate the child by correcting his delinquencies, but let an appropriate sense of humor and a reassuring faith in the child's future save you from taking a child's childishness too seriously. Children will usually respond to such an attitude and coöperate in such an aim. But above all, motivate the work. The better the teacher motivates her work the less trouble she will have with discipline.

If this very brief, outline chapter forcibly suggests the necessity for further detailed study of the technique of teaching,

and furnishes some guidance in the meantime, it will serve the purposes for which it is inserted.

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CHAPTER XVIII

PROBLEMS PECULIAR TO A CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL

Country Life and the Ideals of Democracy. — The consolidated rural school is one of the most significant innovations in American education. It is one of the phases or effects of the country life movement, which has occupied so much attention during the past ten years. The fundamental aim of the country life philosophy is "to make farm life permanently satisfying to representative American citizens." This aim has arisen from the profound insight that democracy cannot succeed in a country where any considerable fraction of the people do not participate in the use and enjoyment of the entire social heritage. As a matter of fact, from time immemorial, rural populations have always shared but meagerly in the civilizations of which they were a part. They have been peasants! But American democracy seems determined to tolerate no peasantry. Our farmers are coming to believe that they have as much right as any other class of citizens to all the good things of our civilization. That is the aim of the country life movement.

Apply these principles to rural education, and the absurd inadequacy of the old one-room school becomes immediately obvious. The core of the matter is, that the country people cannot get along without secondary education. The consolidated school movement means that farmers are providing

themselves with high schools suited to their own peculiar industrial and social needs, and commensurate in quality with the schools of their city cousins. Universal secondary education is essential to the success of democracy in a complex modern civilization, and to make it universal — rural as well as urban — consolidated rural schools are necessary. The time is not far distant when a one-room rural school will be considered a reproach to the community that tolerates it.

The Country Life Movement. — The country life movement demands the improvement of rural life in several different phases: better homes, better farming, better marketing facilities, better churches, better schools, better communication including better roads, better social life, and a larger political influence. The consolidated school stands in the relation of both cause and effect to each of these other phases. It will produce better homes through the teaching of domestic science. It will make better farming possible through the teaching of scientific agriculture. It will call for better roads to facilitate transportation of children to and from school. The consolidated school furnishes a natural center for the social life of the community. There are those who predict that the school buildings will, in many communities at least, be used on Sunday as places of worship. Certainly better education is necessary to a larger political influence. And in turn better homes, better farming, better social life, better roads, and more intelligent legislatures will react upon the schools, improving them. Thus institutions aid each other in the development of an all-round civilization.

Qualifications for Rural Teaching. — The principal and the teachers of a consolidated rural school should be persons of certain special qualifications. They need to be rural minded.

That means that they must know country life, must enjoy it and appreciate its advantages, and must feel that country people are their own kind of folks. In addition to this they should be well versed in the literature, philosophy, and aims of the country life movement. Any young man who finds himself called to the principalship of such a school will make a great mistake if he does not proceed at once to saturate himself in that literature. In other words he must study rural sociology. Otherwise he will fail to discern the significance of his own job. But if he does possess a profound sociological insight into the function of the rural school he will find opportunities for usefulness and reasons for professional satisfaction where a blind man would see neither. And the more he knows about farming, from both the scientific and the practical points of view, the better he will fit into the situation.

The Teacherage. The first problem that is likely to confront the principal of a consolidated school is the problem of a place to live. There is only one adequate solution to this problem, and that is a teacherage large enough to accommodate all the teachers and the janitor. In some rural schools the old one-room schoolhouse has been remodeled and used for that purpose. That is better than nothing, but it is seldom large enough. As time goes on rural school boards will come to see the necessity for this equipment and will provide it. Where teacherages have been erected they have proved a paying investment for the district from the financial standpoint alone, to say nothing of their inducement to good teachers. Meantime principal and teachers will have to make shift as best they can. One successful principal writes: "Our way is to list the available homes and let the teachers select. This is not altogether satisfactory." There is really

but one solution to this problem and it is the principal's business to lead his board to see it as soon as he can.

The Transportation Problem. — It is conceded by everybody that transportation of pupils is the most perplexing problem in connection with consolidated schools. By those who lose sight of the woods on account of the trees the difficulties involved in transportation are always urged as a major objection against consolidation. It is not an objection, however, but only a difficulty. And it is by no means an unsolved problem, as has now been demonstrated in very many districts. Experience seems to have demonstrated pretty clearly that the public system of transportation is best. Individual transportation does not prove satisfactory. Too many emergencies and excuses interfere with bringing the children to school, tardiness is excessive, attendance is irregular, and numerous petty irritations give rise to dissatisfaction. In Minnesota state aid is withheld from schools that use individual transportation. It has proved to be far more satisfactory for the district to own and furnish comfortable vans, employ the drivers, prescribe schedules, and enforce systematic performance of the service.

In the wheat belt the case in favor of the public system is not so clear as it is in the corn belt, due to the relative sparseness of population and the low tax valuation of land. In such regions a full bus load requires too long a haul. Instances are cited of children riding thirteen miles each way daily. On the other hand, to shorten the hauls by the use of more busses would involve so much expense as seriously to discourage consolidation. Hence there is some sentiment in these regions against the public system, and no doubt justly so. It is probable, however, that the individual system

should be looked upon as a necessary but temporary make-shift. As one principal of long experience writes, "I would advise the individual system as a temporary substitute for the public bus only where the finances of the district need careful nursing for a few years." If this is the correct view of the matter, state aid for the public system should be developed as rapidly as practicable.

There are now numerous concerns which manufacture satisfactory school vans. Their advertisements are displayed in educational papers, particularly in *The American School Board Journal*. The van should have glass sides with ventilators, and should be warmed in cold weather by a heater designed especially for the purpose. It is fitted under the wagon bed, and is perfectly fireproof. Seats should be wide apart in order that children's knees may not touch. Toilets in school vans are not necessary. Auto trucks are fast replacing the horse-drawn wagons in the most progressive districts. Where they can be installed they solve the problem of the long haul.

Administering Transportation. — Drivers can usually be secured by advertising for sealed bids on routes as laid out by the board. The lowest bidder is not always the one to be chosen, however. It is very important that drivers be mature, competent, and responsible. They should own and furnish good horses. The health, morals, and, indeed the lives of the children, are in their care while en route to and from school; and no one should be employed who is not fit to trust with all these interests. Drivers should be contracted and bonded, and should be made responsible absolutely to the principal. Principals should insist upon being given authority over their drivers. Children must understand that drivers have disciplinary authority. Monthly salaries of

fifty dollars or less have (prior to the advent of war prices) been found adequate to secure the services of good drivers furnishing their own teams. Women, especially mothers, sometimes make the most satisfactory drivers. Forms for drivers' contracts, bonds, schedules, and reports should be furnished by the State Superintendent or devised by the principal.

Very careful attention should be given to mapping the routes for the drivers in order to accommodate a maximum number of children in each van, gather up the children with the least possible mileage, use the best roads with the least back tracking, and cause the least possible irritation to patrons. Mapping the routes and arranging the schedules is a problem which can be solved only by persons well acquainted with the roads and other local conditions. The board should help the principal with this work. Local conditions will determine the length of the drive. Six miles ought to be the maximum wagon ride for children farthest from the school, and this will usually prove practicable except in sparsely settled regions. The drivers' schedules should be made out with great care, and, once they are demonstrated to be practical, drivers should be held responsible for conformity thereto. The drivers should make daily reports to the principal. Drivers will find excuses for deviating from their schedules unless this is insisted upon. Dissatisfaction is sure to result if they are not regular. The wagon should therefore be as nearly on time as possible. To save back tracking children may walk reasonable distances to meet the van, at which stations shelters should be provided. Neighbors will often be willing to telephone the next house: "Wagon just left here."

Where the private system is in use the principal's problem in administering it is largely one of tact in adjusting per-

sonal relations. He must try to educate his patrons to the right notion of the pay they receive for carrying their children; they should not look upon it as a strictly business proposition. Instead, they should be taught to appreciate the school privileges. On the other hand, the board should pay as liberally as possible. Pains should be taken to equalize payments to patrons for hauling their children on some basis that will be fair to all. Otherwise ill feelings will be sure to arise between neighbors. It will require tact and patience to induce neighbors to coöperate in the carrying of children. This necessary but voluntary coöperation is urged, however, as one of the benefits of the private system. The board should assist the principal, especially if he is new in the district, in planning all these arrangements, and especially in adjusting them when disagreements arise. If parents carry children, authority over them en route naturally inheres in the parents; in cases where wagons are driven by older children parents may, where it seems desirable, be induced to delegate that authority to the principal, who may then hold the driver responsible. Except in districts where the school spirit is very strong there will be constant difficulty over tardiness and irregular attendance. A tactful, resourceful principal may be able to overcome this in part by cultivating school spirit and by impressing upon parents and pupils the importance of punctuality and regularity. But success in all these matters will depend principally upon the personality of the principal and the spirit of his teachers.

Janitor Service. Janitor service is another puzzling problem. The solution is pay! The principal had better set himself at once to the task of educating his board to an appreciation of the importance of this service to the health

and ideals of the pupils as well as to the efficiency of the school. If they can be induced to read it he might furnish them literature on the technique of the janitor's art, to make them see that it is no schoolboy's job. Tell them what janitor services cost in town. In lieu of adequate service some schools have tried having a teacher do the janitor work ; others have made use of the student help ; others have permitted a bus driver to act also as janitor. None of these makeshifts is satisfactory. Schools that have adequate facilities for teaching agriculture can make use of a janitor and caretaker the year round, and such a person can be, in part at least, self-supporting.

The Nooning. — The noon hour presents a rather complicated problem because children do not go home to dinner as they do in town. It is well to systematize the lunch. Children should be seated in regular order, and remain seated until all have finished eating. They should be served with some hot dish prepared in the school kitchen. There should be a teacher in charge of each room. After lunch some play or other activity should be engaged in, out of doors, if the weather permits. This should be supervised as suggested in Chapter XI. There should be ample gymnasium facilities. Where there are not, calisthenics, victrola concerts, community singing, or orchestra work help to relieve the situation. In the shortest winter days, especially in the extreme north, it may sometimes be advisable to begin school at nine-thirty, reducing the nooning to thirty minutes. In some schools the noon hour is shortened and the time given to athletic games after school.

The Social Life of the Community. — The principal of a consolidated rural school should think of himself not only as

an educator, but also as, in some sense, a social engineer. It is the rule for rural communities to be deplorably destitute of wholesome social life. This is usually due to the comparative isolation in which farmers live. It is often made worse by the mixture of nationalities in a given community — or, perhaps more accurately, to the refusal of different nationalities to mix. Social intercourse not only adds greatly to the joy of life, but there are very profound sociological reasons why it is indispensable. The difference between a neighborhood that has a good social life and one that lacks it is almost unbelievable. It even registers itself in remarkable differences in land values. Now the consolidated school furnishes a natural center for the community social life; indeed one of the reasons for consolidation is that it revolutionizes the social life of the community. Of this new community life the principal is, therefore, a sort of director. He must plan for getting the people together. In some neighborhoods the farmers have clubs which meet regularly once or twice a month, especially during the slack season. Everybody gathers, young and old. Children and young folks play games; the older people visit. There is usually a speech or program of some sort; and always something to eat. The gathering breaks up in time to get home and do the chores. Some farm neighborhoods devote Saturday afternoon to these festivities all through the summer. If it were not for our puritanical notions we might make the Sabbath worth a good deal more to man than we do. Bands, moonlight schools, literary societies, clubs for business purposes, lecture courses, parent-teacher associations, community singing, choir rehearsals, religious services, and a great variety of other activities will suggest themselves to the versatile principal. In some

districts the principal will be discouraged by the fact that some, perhaps many, of the adults will refuse to participate in these social activities. This is most liable to be the case in foreign settlements. In such a case the only thing to do is to organize the young people and let them go ahead without the old folks if the latter will not participate.

The Course of Study. — Undoubtedly the most fundamental of all the administrative problems of the consolidated rural school is the course of study. The traditional town-made curriculum is out of date and out of place in a modern rural school. A veritable revolution is needed in aim, contents, method, and organization of rural education, and there is a wonderful opportunity for the young principal to break new ground. School subjects must be connected vitally with the interests and environments of farm children. For example, farm children in the rural schools of North Dakota figure out problems in grain dockage, they learn Foley's poems of local coloring, they dramatize Captain Marsh's trip up the Missouri to find Custer, they acquaint themselves with the weeds and useful plants of the region. This principle of correlation with the local interests, social, industrial, and natural, needs to be applied from top to bottom of the course of study. In the upper grades this will involve considerable industrial education adapted to the real needs of the young people growing up on the farms. But while this is being done the cultural, social, civic, and æsthetic phases of rural education must not be neglected. Local articulations should not go so far, however, as to annul the fundamental identity of elementary curriculums everywhere. One great difficulty with high school work everywhere is that neither pupils nor teachers understand what it is all about. The rural principal who can

minister this insight to his older pupils will perform a rare service. In the middle grades the curriculum problem is somewhat analagous. Articulation with normal interests, and projects embodying Froebel's social participation theory, must be no excuse for soft pedagogy, however. Quite the contrary; it is precisely by saving time through sharp, efficient drill on the fundamentals, and through abolishing the deadening repetition of subjects prematurely begun, that time is gained for activities that vitalize school life. Parents and patrons must be taught that children go to school for other reasons than to learn reading, writing, and arithmetic. In the early grades, in fact all through the grades, there should be more Pestalozzian object teaching as a perceptive basis for articulating book work with real life. There must be construction work involving, in small children, not the accessory, but the fundamental muscles. There must be play, music, and social activities. In fact the problem of conceiving, planning, organizing, and administering a course of study really suitable to a rural consolidated school is a problem worthy the mettle of any educator, however wise, learned, or renowned. No young teacher need ask a greater opportunity, for rest assured the world will wear an automobile track to the district, however remote, where it is really being done.

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CHAPTER XIX

THE PRINCIPAL'S PROFESSIONAL CAREER

The Professional Training Needed. — In many states the law requires that a man or woman who holds such a position as that under discussion in this book must be a college graduate, and have had, as a part of such college experience, a minimum of courses in education. Exception is usually made, however, of smaller schools, so that the principals in many minor villages are not college graduates. The state law as a rule, however, slams the door of professional advancement in the face of untrained men. While this may seem hard in the case of principals who are making good at the bottom of the ladder, it must on the whole be recognized as a wise and just provision. If our schools are to be put on a professional basis, professional training must be required of those who administer them.

These legal requirements may be taken to indicate the kind of preparation one ought to have for a village principalship. There should be at least a good college course. And by good is meant, first, that it should be taken at a good institution, and secondly, that it should be liberally elected. The problems with which the educator has to deal touch life and society at so many points that a narrow course, devoted almost exclusively to some special interest, is not adequate. One's undergraduate education should introduce him to all of the

great major interests of mankind, such as science, industry, art, literature, history, music, social science, religion, and philosophy. The college course should also include some special study of education and the subjects closely related, such as psychology, sociology, history and theory of education, management and methods, and school administration. A year of graduate study, with education for the major interest, should be added after a year or two of experience.

It is always desirable that the prospective principal have some training in a normal school. The colleges and universities in their instruction in education as a rule lay the stress on secondary education. While this should not be neglected, the elementary point of view needs at least equal emphasis. There is no more common deficiency with young principals just out of college than their ignorance of and indifference to the problems of elementary education. This defect a year of normal school experience would correct. College men aiming toward educational work will do well to arrange for this experience, either by graduating from a normal school before going to college, or by a taking a year or at least a summer or two at a normal school during their college career, applying the credits on their college course. The elementary practice teaching under competent supervision will be found especially helpful.

The Principal Whose Training Has Been Neglected. — What shall we say now of the man who finds himself in the principalship without such training? For such a man there are three alternatives: to leave the profession, to secure the required training, or to abandon all hope of professional advancement. A few words may be said with regard to the second and third.

The completion of a belated college course is not so difficult as it may seem, if a person is industrious and determined. The opportunities now offered for correspondence work favor such an enterprise. So do the summer sessions of colleges and universities. Besides, by reading and studying at home one could go over the ground of certain subjects in advance, *e.g.* history, literature, or sociology, so that he could, while in residence, earn a large number of credits. Even if it requires a long term of years to reach the goal the effort would be worth the stakes. The writers have known of men receiving college degrees in this way at thirty-five or even forty years of age.

This is a good opportunity to throw in a parenthetical word about vacations. Many a teacher's professional birthright has been sold for a mess of vacation pottage! Vacations offer opportunities for study that are of the highest importance. They sometimes afford opportunities for forming new professional connections that may prove profitable. They give one a chance also for rest and change of scene, the value of which must not be discounted. One sees the world from an entirely different point of view after camping two weeks under the tall pines by a fishing lake, or after a few days spent among the haunts of his boyhood. Such experiences often amount to a spiritual renaissance. A part of one's vacation devoted to physical work is also profitable for many reasons, not the least of which is that it keeps alive one's sympathies with people who earn their living that way. The vacation of a confirmed pedagogue is well used, nevertheless, if spent in some dignified work entirely foreign to teaching, *i.e.* writing insurance, doing Chautauqua work, or acting as a clerk in a bank. But one is often penny wise and pound foolish to devote all his vacation to money making. The fundamental maxim for the

use of vacations is to make them contribute to one's professional future, a maxim that is very easy to lose sight of.

Glorifying a Humble Lot. — As for the third alternative, to abandon hope of professional promotion does not necessarily mean to abandon hope of a useful and satisfying professional career. Who of us does not recall, among the men whom we respect and admire most, some who have all their lives occupied small positions? Such men glorify the common lot. We recommend to the principal who, because of handicaps in training, sees no prospect of big things ahead, that he plan to stay in one place for a long term of years, and build himself into the life of the people, and that he collect a well-digested library of books and periodicals both general and professional, so as to be thoroughly professional and alive to the changing world, in spite of his handicaps. If the reader is unfamiliar with the standard professional periodicals he can derive suggestions from the lists of references in this book. These should perhaps be supplemented by something more local in character. But he must beware as he grows older lest seeing he may see and not perceive, and hearing he may hear and not understand. It is entirely easy for a man of forty, reading a new system of philosophy, to read into it the system he learned at twenty, and so find in the new system everything but the new point of view. Such a mind is the mind of a mossback; and a man without early training is extremely liable to it. The self-educated man is also liable to acquire crank notions and hobbies, especially if he has considerable originality. For such a library we recommend especially the literature of the country life movement; nothing will go farther toward revealing to the village principal the possibilities of community leadership. And finally we rec-

commend that he own a home, as humble as need be, as good as may be, and a plot of ground — a farm if possible, and cultivate the Grayson type of contact with nature. If he is the right sort of soul, there will be no lack of uncovered heads at his funeral.

Pitfalls to be Avoided. — But professional training is not a substitute for making good. In fact too much confidence in his professional training has been the undoing of many a young man. Conceit of any sort is a handicap hard indeed to overcome. One who is not temperamentally afflicted with that malady is likely to acquire it on account of being one of the most learned and important personalities in the little burg. Conceit not only makes him unpopular, but it also makes him lazy. He counts himself to have apprehended, and that puts an end to his growth.

This may result also from his failure to see the opportunities and rewards of his profession. The young village principal should normally aspire to become superintendent of one of the greatest cities in the land. Whenever the county seat becomes the goal of his ambition he begins at once to ossify. However, great ambition may be mere conceit. In that case it will generate a fatalistic confidence that kills sane professional endeavor. Another pitfall is to become swamped in the various social and other demands of the village life. The opposite extreme is to become bookish and to lose touch with folks. It takes a wise young man to know where the line should be drawn between too much and too little participation in social matters; and it takes steady purpose to hew to the line when it has been drawn. Occasionally a school man develops a grouch. His time is soon up. Another comes out of college ambitious to specialize as teacher of some

particular subject. This man is likely to forget that he is superintendent of schools, not teacher of history, and so miss his opportunity. And so the road to success is full of pitfalls too numerous to enumerate. It is well to study the mistakes of men who fail, in order to avoid them. There are ways, too, for one to find out what temperamental faults or acquired mannerisms one's friends realize that he himself has. If a young man knows them he ought to be able to correct them.

Some Little Requisites to Success. — But there are things to do as well as things to avoid. First, study the profession. Learn the details of the work. It is well for the young principal to diversify his set tasks. As we have recommended before, it is worth while for him to teach in the elementary grades. His ideal should be to do anything in the grades as well as his best grade teachers can do it. If he is clever he can make good teachers teach him without their knowing it. But he should study books as well as practice. He should study all around the subjects he has to teach. His library should grow from year to year by the addition of the best new books, and the best educational periodicals should come to his desk. But he must beware of the habit of hasty, superficial reading. Professional literature must not monopolize his reading, however. General reading is equally necessary; otherwise he will lose articulation with life. But above all he must study successful men, to discover if possible the secrets of their achievement. He must learn to apportion his time among the various interests of his work. In order to insure this it might be well for him to work out in black and white a list of interests to which he should devote his attention, indicating the proportion of his time that should normally be

devoted to each, on the analogy of the score card, and then check himself up from time to time as to its observance. Otherwise he will become one-sided or else swamped in the multiplicity of things to do. He must learn to economize time, but without hurrying the wrong things. He must learn to sort his activities with reference to his goal. He needs, for instance, to learn the art of pleasing, effective public speech ; he needs association with active, successful men, and discussion with his intellectual peers. He needs also a certain amount of recreation. But he must not let any of these needs entice him into squandering time on trifles that have no bearing on his aims. The more regularly he can order his habits the better. The best kind of advertising is, first, to run a better school than your neighbors, and, secondly, to extend your acquaintance. Discreditable self-advertising will be increasingly discredited as the profession becomes more professionalized.

Business Matters. — At this point a few words of advice about business matters may not be amiss. It goes almost without saying that the principal upon arrival in a new place should at once establish relations with a bank. Then he cannot be too careful about his credit. Nothing can undermine a man's standing more quickly and surely than to acquire a reputation for being careless or unreliable about his accounts. As for the investment of his savings, let him beware of schemes that promise big returns and offer to let little fellows in on the ground floor. Large investors are in the market for safe investments, and whenever promoters turn to small investors, the small investor usually needs no surer evidence that he had better let the scheme alone. If shares are offered on the installment plan the scheme should be viewed with additional

suspicion. Dean Kinley sums up his advice on this matter as follows: "In short, if you would seek a safe investment look for one that will give you ordinary returns, which is local in character, backed by security that cannot get away, and taken by the advice of your banker. The observance of these general rules will save many a heartache caused by the loss of hard-earned dollars."

Growing a Personality. — A good deal is said and written about developing a personality. We think it unwise for the young principal to bother his head much about his personality. "It seems to be one of those virtues like humility, which dissolves and melts the moment it becomes self-conscious." That is to say, personality is not something to the stature of which one can add a cubit by taking thought thereof, but by seeking first the kingdom of fundamentals, such as health, character, friends, family, manners, success, and ideals. For instance, the professional man who is ill mannered and of uncouth speech never will have personality. Middle aged men who are failures wear a certain hangdog expression, while successful men hold their heads up. The difference is personality. Therefore succeed, and ultimately your personality will show a justifiable self-assurance. But true success is based on what may be called the attitude of the artist. The mere drudge is incapable of real consecration to his work. The difference is not in the work, however, but in what one is able to see in his labor. Only the insight of idealism can transfigure work. And this is perhaps the most important element of personality, unless we except character. Bad men, insincere men, reveal the fact that they are bad in mysterious ways; a genuine, honest soul attracts attention also. The friendless person in the long run becomes unworthy

of friends; but the more friends one has the more his personality must expand to take them in. And everybody recognizes the type of man or woman who has reared worthy sons and daughters. But it takes time to rear a family, to demonstrate oneself a master of his profession, to refine one's character and ideals in the crucible of experience, and to acquire a long list of old friends. Personality, therefore is a thing that ripens, and it ill befits a stripling to affect it. But as William James wrote: "Let no youth have any anxiety about the upshot of his education, whatever the line of it may be. If he keep faithfully busy each hour of the working day, he may safely leave the result to itself. He can with perfect certainty count on waking up some fine morning to find himself one of the competent ones of his generation, in whatever pursuit he may have singled out." And what he said of success is equally true of any of the other elements of personality.

Prizes at the Top. — The incentive that is most effective in constraining a young man to pay the price of success is to perceive vividly the prizes at the top of the ladder. And those prizes are certainly numerous and attractive. Moreover, they are rapidly growing in number, and the demand for learned, matured, and successful men far exceeds the supply.

Perhaps the top to which the village principal may most logically aspire is the superintendency of a city system. This is practically a new profession, and one for which the rewards, pecuniary, social, and professional, are very attractive. Salaries in cities above 10,000 range from three to ten thousand dollars, according to the size of the city, and are rapidly increasing. The opportunities afforded to a man in such a position to direct public opinion, lead the development of a

city, and mold the lives of men and women, are hardly equaled by those of any other profession.

Another desirable line of advancement, and a line that will be increasingly attractive as the reorganizations described in Chapter III are realized, is county superintendency, with state superintendency as the ultimate goal. It will not be many years before the office of state superintendent will afford as great opportunities for educational statesmanship and leadership as the presidency of great universities has in the past.

Besides these two avenues of promotion there is a third, namely, the teaching of educational administration in colleges and universities. And as the science of education receives more and more attention at centers of learning and recognition by the public school system, the tendency is increasing to elect professional educators as university presidents. Several recent instances could be enumerated.

But the young man who aspires to these high places must equip himself, as a rule, with the advanced training represented by the Ph.D. degree. He must lay the foundation of success in small systems, a success that means thorough mastery of all the details of the business. He must also be willing to wait. Such positions are worth long years of patient, painstaking preparation. A small position at thirty and a large and important superintendency at forty will be far above the average achievement.

Women in the Profession. — In conclusion it may be added that all the signs of the times indicate women to be almost as likely aspirants to such positions as men.

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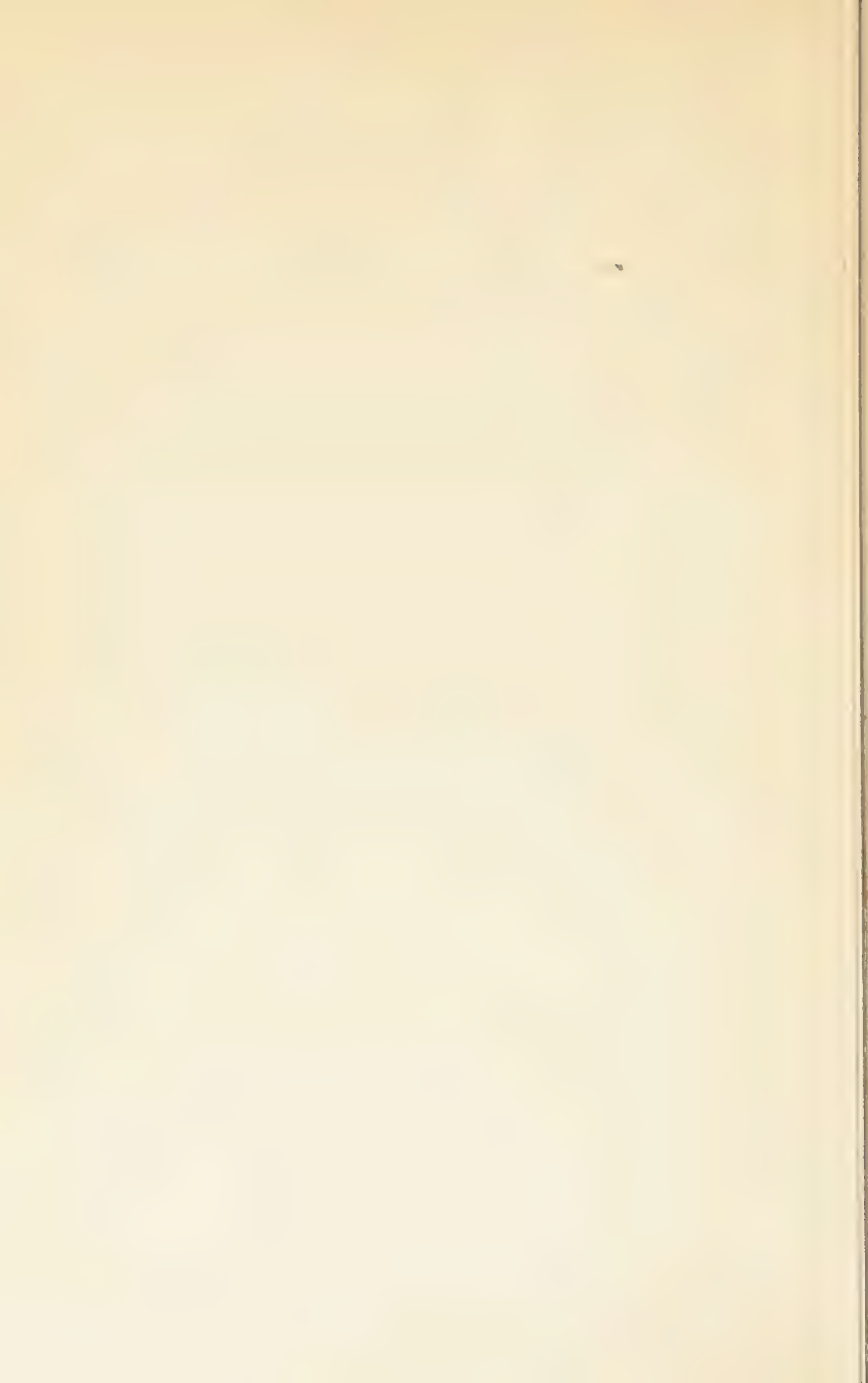
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